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ABSTRACT

The theme of the 1985-1986 Teacher Education Workshop, sponsored by the North Central Association Teacher Education Project, was "Designing Contemporary Teacher Education Curricula." Group reports are presented on: (1) "Forces Affecting Parameters of Teacher Education"; (2) "A Window of Analysis for Examining One Major Curriculum Recommendation"; and (3) "The Professional Studies Component in Teacher Education: More Than Courses and Generating Academic Credit." Individual research reports were presented on: (1) "A Futuristic Look at Dance in the School Curriculum" (Alta Burns); (2) "Competency Testing: How Can Teacher Education Help?" (Trenton Cooper); (3) "Follow-Up Questionnaire for Use in Curricula Change Decisions for Preservice Teacher Preparation Programs" (Ray Gibson); (4) "Preservice Teacher Education: What Is the Current Curriculum?" (Shirley Haworth and Donald Jones); (6) "A Modest Proposal for Iowa Teacher Evaluation of Beginning Classroom Teachers" (Vincent Mahoney); (7) "Enhancing Instructional Competence in Small Colleges" (William Roweton); (8) "Teacher Stress: The Enemy Within" (Darold Simms); and (9) "A Learning Resource Center for Teacher Education" (Michael Tanner). Appendixes provide information on the total program of the Teacher Education Project and details of the workshop purposes, organization, personnel, and groups. (CB)

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DESIGNING CONTEMPORARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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FOREWORD

For thirty-eight years the TEACHER EDUCATION WORKSHOP, which has been sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, has provided a means through which interested institutions of higher education can work cooperatively. This joint effort has always addressed teacher education and higher education. The theme for each workshop is identified by the Teacher Education Project Committee of the North Central Accrediting Association. As has been true in each of the previous thirty-eight workshops, opportunity was provided for each individual participant to represent the home institution as a contributor to the collective efforts of the total workshop. Opportunities were also made to direct the interests and concerns of each workshopper toward the general theme of the workshop, *DESIGNING CONTEMPORARY TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULA*.

The general outline of the 1985-1986 project year began with the residential summer workshop described in this report. The theme was researched, and written summaries of all of the workshop activities are contained in the following document. This written report can, at best, provide only a partial summarization of the overall cognitive outcomes resulting from the workshop. Of equal importance and significance, moreover, was a broad array of affective encounters which every participant experienced. Northern Arizona University was asked to host the 1985 workshop. The special opportunities available and the past experience of hosting two prior NCA Workshops contributed much.

Interpersonal relationships among the workshoppers and staff members made valuable contributions toward a greater understanding of the dynamics of teacher education. The housing arrangements and social activities for workshop participants and families presented additional opportunities for learning.

Total success of the workshop must be attributed to the efforts of each individual workshopper. For the final production of this report, I am personally indebted to Jean Redburn, Karen Willey, and other support personnel from the Department of Secondary, Higher and Foundations of Education at Ball State University, who have contributed their special skills and energies in bringing this publication to fruition.

To the faculty, staff, and administration at Northern Arizona University, indebtedness for the complete support and willing assistance, which were provided throughout the entire workshop, is acknowledged. Special acknowledgement is made of the personal involvement and assistance which were provided by Dr. David Williams, Executive Director of the Center for Excellence.

Donald W. Jones

Donald W. Jones, Chairman
North Central Association
Teacher Education Project

THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION TEACHER EDUCATION SUMMER WORKSHOP

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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION
TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT COMMITTEE

Dr. Clyde Campbell, who is the President of West Liberty State College, West Liberty, West Virginia has completed his initial year as a member of the Project Committee. West Liberty State College has been a regular participating college for more than fifteen years.

Dr. Clark Elkins has been a workshopper, a Project Coordinator and a Co-Director of the Summer Workshop. Now serving his second term as a member of the Project Committee, Dr. Elkins assisted in many aspects of the 1985 workshop. Dr. Elkins is the President's Coordinator of University Relations at Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona.

Dr. Wayne Huddleston has on one occasion participated as an official NCA Workshop participant. He has attended several other workshop sessions and has been a much valued member of the Project throughout his term. Dr. Huddleston presently holds the position of Vice President for Academic Affairs at The School of the Ozarks, Point Lookout, Missouri.

For the past sixteen years Dr. Donald Jones has held the post of Chairman of the NCA Project Committee. Having been a workshop participant at the Minnesota Teacher Education Workshop, Dr. Jones has also been a Project Coordinator. As Co-Director of annual workshops Dr. Jones, who is presently the Coordinator of Secondary Teaching Programs at Ball State University, has visited the campus of many participating colleges.

Dr. Janet Murphy who is president of Western Missouri State College, has completed two years of her first term as a member of the North Central Association Teacher Education Project Committee.

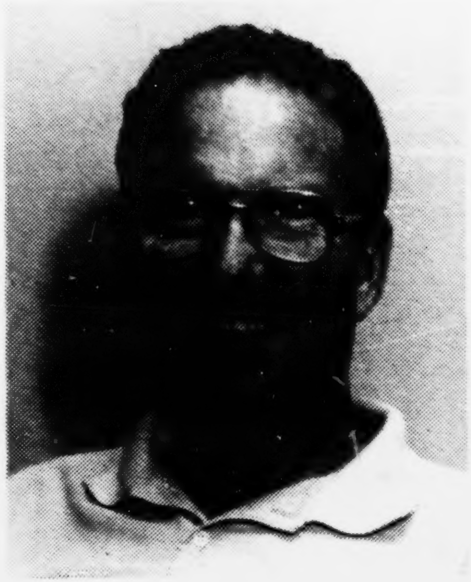
Dr. Darlene Miller has twice been an official NCA Workshop participant. After serving two terms as a Project Coordinator, Dr. Miller accepted a seat on the Project Committee. She has just finished her first year as a member, and continues to provide much needed interest and support.

Dr. Mossie Richmond, after completing one term as a member of the NCA Project Committee , has accepted a second term. The Vice President for University Relations at Arkansas State University in Jonesboro, Arkansas, is a valued committee member. Arkansas State University has been a regular participating institution in the NCA Teacher Education Project since the earliest years.

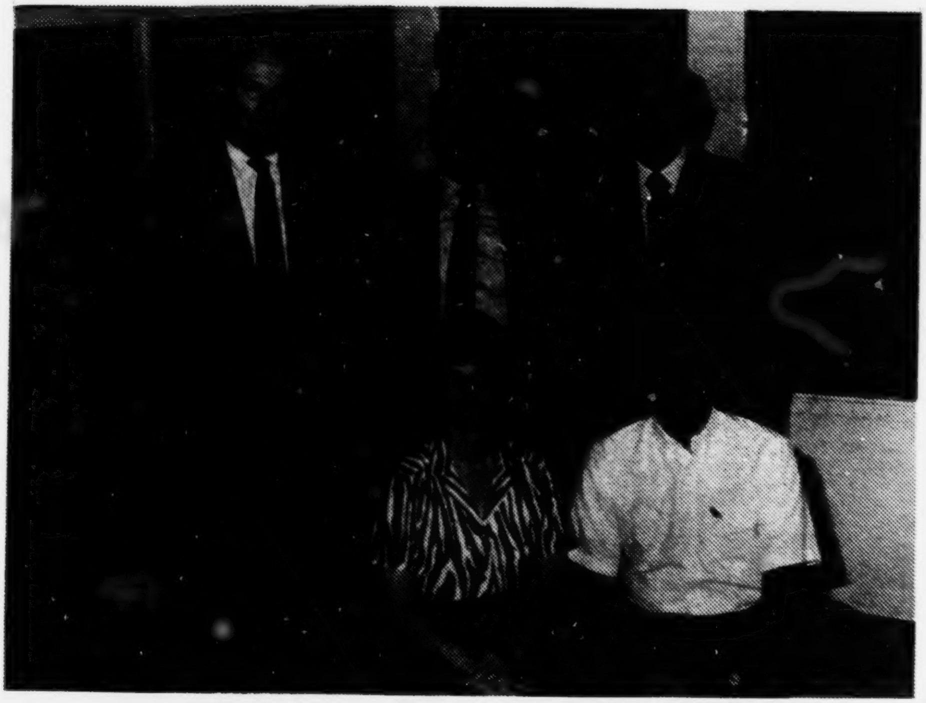
Dr. Donald Deselms is the Vice President at Chadron State College in Chadron, Nebraska. Dr. Deselms was a workshopper in the first Ball State Workshop experience. He continues to provide strong support for the project and its goals. Chadron State College has participated without interruption for more than twenty-five years.

Dr. Donald Platz served as the Co-Director of the 1985 North Central Association Teacher Education Workshop. He was the official representative to the 1984 Ball State Workshop and assisted in the advanced planning and preparation for the study of Contemporary Curriculum in Teacher Education. Dr. Platz specializes in elementary and early childhood education at Northern Arizona University.

For the past three years Dr. Shirley Haworth has been the Southern Liaison Representative to the NCA Teacher Education Project Committee. She has also been a workshop participant for three consecutive years. Dr. Haworth is located at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, where she is the Coordinator of Teacher Education.



Dr. Haskell Cannon, a former NCA workshopper and Co-Director of a workshop, served as a tour guide for workshoppers and family members as they visited the Navajo and Hopi Reservations. A professor at Northern Arizona University, Dr. Cannon contributed much very important and interesting information. His insights were noted by all workshoppers.



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CHAPTER ONE

GROUP REPORTS

I. Forces Affecting Parameters of Teacher Education

II. A Window of Analysis for Examining One Major Curriculum Recommendation

III. The Professional Studies Component in Teacher Education: More Than Courses and Generating Academic Credit

GROUP I

FORCES AFFECTING PARAMETERS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

By

Barbara A. Jones

Introduction

In a socialized democratic society, it is impossible for an organization to exist in isolation. Interaction, connectedness and interdependence are characteristics of a functioning system. In order to examine an institution comprehensively, attention must be given to both internal and external forces as they impact on an organization. Pressures from within and without serve as impetus for change and a system of checks and balances in institutions.

For the last decade the field of education has been the object of intense scrutiny by both internal and external forces. This report attemts to present the impact of influences on the field of teacher education.

Delineation of Forces

The following chart is designed to categorize both internal and external forces that relate to curriculum change in teacher education. While some agencies exert influence in more than one area, for purpose of presentation, they have been placed in the category which seemed most significant to the author. The list of impacting forces designated by the chart is presented as a representation of types of influences rather than an exhaustive and comprehensive testing.

CHART #1

CATEGORIES OF FORCES THAT IMPACT ON CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCTION

PROFESSIONAL UNIT*	HIGHER EDUCATION	PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS PUBLIC SCHOOLS GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES	SOCIETY IN GENERAL
Leadership of the Unit Faculty Expertise and Commitment to Teacher Education Faculty Specialists (Sub-Groups) Foundations Multicultural Education Elementary Laboratory Experiences Applied and Basic Research Knowledge Base Extended Programs Graduate Programs Student and Alumni Feedback	Central Administration Liberal Arts Faculty Academic Specialists Academic Councils	Professional Associations NCATE AACTE ATE Special Interests Associations IRA, NAEYC, MENC, ASCD Public Schools Administrators Principals Teachers School Boards Traditional Curriculum Public School Associations NEA AFT AASA NASP State Department of Education State Directors of Teacher Education (NASDTEC) U.S. Department of Education Secretary of Education	Legislators Parents Media Interpretations State of the Economy Social Unrest Technological Developments Demographics in Population (Bimodal) Societal Subgroups Urban Rural Minorities Disadvantaged Supply and Demand Availability of Personnel Commitment to Profession Emergency Certification

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* The professional unit is defined as "The college, school department or other administrative body within the institution that is officially responsible for the preparation of students who seek certification as teachers and other educational personnel."

Influences by Society

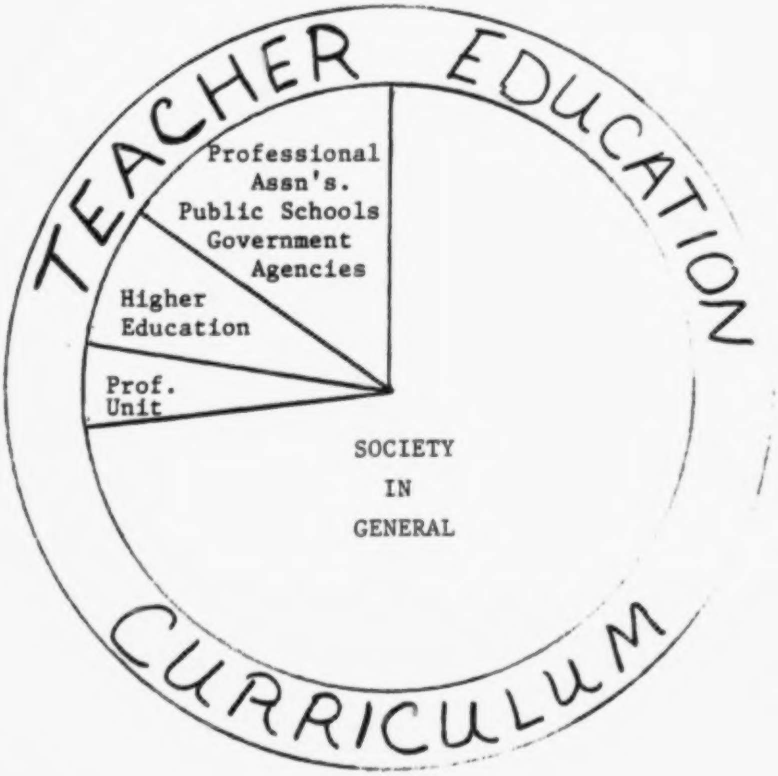
Diagram #1 indicates that the greatest proportion of influence in the last five years on teacher education curriculum has been exerted by society in general. It should be noted that state and national legislators are listed in this category. (Chart #1) Lawmakers have been intensely involved in developing legislation that impacts on teacher education curriculum. Ravitch (1983) states that no other activity in our country is as directly controlled by government as education. Examples of legislative intervention are the mandating of specific courses for certification such as a course in multicultural education which is required by Minnesota; content reading in the secondary school in Indiana; a psychology of the exceptional child course required in Missouri; and a human relations for teachers in Iowa. One of the most significant government interventions was the passing of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (94-142) in 1976, which stated that all children from three to eighteen were to have access to public educational facilities (Gordon and Browne, 1985). Teacher Education responded to the legislation by developing courses, and in many cases entire departments, dedicated to providing preservice teachers the opportunity to develop skills in working in the area of special education.

The state of the economy (listed in the Society Classification) has caused such severe economic cuts in educational funding that major retrenchment has occurred in the colleges of education at University of California at Berkeley, Temple University and Michigan State. Duke University closed its department of education completely in 1981. (Schuttenberg, 1983). As economists continue to be pessimistic about the foreseeable future, the budget crunch will affect teacher education through faculty retrenchment, which means larger classes, heavier teaching and advising responsibilities which often result in less time for productive research in curriculum development.

Technological advancements have precipitated the development of computer application courses in teacher education curriculum as a response to the increase in the use of the computer in private homes, in the public schools, and in the business world. Professional units have been rather slow to respond to this impetus from the public sector because of lack of budgeted money to purchase necessary special equipment and the lack of computer applicability expertise in the teacher education facilities. The rapid pace of technological growth will change the employment outlook. Growth in the professional, semi-professional and technical occupations will outdistance the need for training in industrial and manufacturing areas. "Work in the future will require people who can think, plan, adapt to changing conditions and make decisions." (Ravitch, 1983, p. 20). It

DIAGRAM #1

PERCENT OF INFLUENCE OF FORCES ON CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION 1980-1985



will be imperative for curriculum in teacher education to respond to these changing needs by providing experiences in advanced reasoning skills, allowing freedom for independent thinking and developing decision making skills.

A combination of the influences of societal sub-groups and supply and demand has caused SCDE's to organize and broaden programs in the area of bilingual education. For example, in Texas where Spanish-speaking sub-groups have congregated in urban areas, there is great demand for teachers who are certified in bilingual education. Because of the current shortage of teachers in the bilingual area, public schools in Texas are hiring less than full qualified personnel for bilingual positions (AACTE 1, 1983).

A second combination of forces is evident in the partnership of social unrest and media interpretions. In examining the "Back to Basics" movement, media reports of high school graduates who were not able to read, the failing SAT scores, and "Johnny Can't Compute" incited the public to look for solutions to the problems they read about in local newspapers, saw on television, and heard on the radio. The most logical solution to the reported decline in the quality of education was to return to the "good old days" of the way the public used to learn the multiplication facts, read phonetically and learn all the capitals of the states in the United States. Public demand for the product of education rather than the process influenced teacher education units to reassess the goals and objectives of their programs. The response to the public emphasis on product and accountability was the development of performance based teacher education. Martin Haberman (1975) summarized the movement in this way:

> The P.B.T.E. emphasis of having future teachers learn to do specific tasks is in direct harmony with the public desire to make certain that pupils' learning can be described with some degree of clarity and precision. P.B.T.E. is still not accepted by the majority of teacher educators, nor is it the dominant program format in most institutions. Nevertheless, PBTE has received fantasic coverage in the literature and has been adopted, in some form, by institutions in every state. Such rapid adoption would have never been possible had it not been supported by the public pressure for greater accountability for classroom teachers (Haberman, 1975, p. 316).

Because of the integrated nature of our society, it is important for outside forces to impact on the education of teachers in order to keep the curriculum viable and meaningful. However, the developers of teacher education programs must serve as screens to analyze demands for change based on their professional knowledge and expertise. It is imperative that these leaders become vocal in explaining to the general public the purposes and direction of teacher education. Two-way communication is a prerequisite to understanding.

Professional Associations, Public Schools, Governmental Agencies

A more narrow set of forces impacting on curriculum in teacher education is composed of components of the profession-the public schools, special interest professional associations and the United States Department of Education. Within the parameters of this report, it would be impossible to discuss each faction in depth. It is hoped that a representative selection of components has been selected by the author.

Accreditation is the system used to provide quality control in teacher education. Two purposes of accreditation according to Bush and Enemack (1976) are "to establish a minimum level of competency by the practitioners of the profession, thus providing protection for the clients of the profession and status for the practitioner" (p. 274). The second purpose stated by Bush and Enemack (1976) focuses on stimulating continuous growth and development in teacher education practices. The accreditation process is composed of three levels as defined by NCATE. (1985, pp. 3-4)

1. State accreditation whose purpose is to ensure that students being certified have completed satisfactory programs in higher education.

2. Regional accreditation which evaluates total institutions in terms of objectives, quality of programs, administrative effectiveness, libraries, financial status and student personnel programs.

3. National accreditation evaluates the professional unit (as defined on page 41 of Redesign) NCATE is the agency recognized for the purpose of national accreditation.

At each level of accreditation, representative members from components other than teacher education are involved in the accrediting process. Membership for the NCATE evaluation team is composed of representatives from AACTE, the NEA and other constituents of NCATE. (NCATE Redesign, 1985)

The broad representation of accrediting teams is designed to provide input from a variety of educational clientele.

Through accreditation, pressures are placed on teacher education curricula in a formalized manner. An excellent example of a change in teacher preparation curriculum is based on NCATE standard 2.11 which states, "The institution provides for multicultural education in its teacher education curricula, including both the general and professional studies component" (NCATE 1982, p. 14)

The certification of teachers is the responsibility of NASDTEC, an organization of state licensing offices. "NASDTEC officer-developed state approval mechanisms essentially constitute state accreditation of teacher education in education" (Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers, 1976, p. 104). Two major purposes of NASDTEC are to insure quality in teacher education and to aid in devising effective reciprocity agreements among states. It is of the utmost importance that state licensing officers adopt policies which would permit cooperation with regional and national accrediting agencies. In the last decade, there has been an increasing demand (spearheaded by the NEA) for the public school classroom teacher to become more involved and more powerful in monitoring the certification of their own profession. An example of this broad based involvement is the Ryan Act in California, establishing a Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing which included four teachers, one administrator, one counselor, two school board members, four college professors from academic disciplines, and three laymen (Bush and Enemeck, 1975).

In the areas of certification and accreditation, it is hoped that both procedures would focus more of their efforts on improvement functions in teacher education curriculum rather than regulating and maintaining minimal standards.

Influences of teacher education curricula which hold both internal and external relationships to teacher education are the NEA, ATJ, ATE and the AACTE. These organizations stand apart from their institutions; however, their members are the focus for the changes which they promote. (Clarke & Marker, 1975, pp. 71-72)

> This internal-external relationship of the professional associations, coupled with their voluntary characteristics and their dependence upon the power of prestige as a means of influence, limits the range of modifications which they can seek to accomplish. Changes which could radically alter the situations of a majority of their members are simply unlikely candidates for the professional associations to champion.

> On the other hand, when the changes they seek are within the capability of large numbers of their members, then the effect of the prestige of inside influences can be substantial.

In the past, the AACTE has been the organization that has been the major force or representative for teacher education institutions. Ralph Cyr (1981) points out that the diversity and lack of cohesion in the AACTE membership in terms of missions statements, goals, and the number of sub-groups within the larger group have caused the organization to attempt to formulate national policy by consensus. The major curricular influencing force of the AACTE is in the publication of reports and position papers such as the 1976 publication on Educating a Profession and the 1983 publication on Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher.

Although the name of the federal agency for education has changed its name frequently, (U.S. Office of Education, the National Institute for Education), the United States Department of Education's chief form of impact is through the funding of programs such as the TEAM (Teachers Education and Media) Project, Teacher Corps, CETEM (Comprehensive Elementary Teacher Education Model) and the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth (Cruckshank, 1984). A second impacting force of the federal government should be to serve as an advocate for state support of teacher education (Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers, 1976). Several problems exist in the federal funding process administered by the Department of Education. First, federal funding is a politically sensitive issue and dependent on the attitudes toward teacher education of the party in power. The present Secretary of Education, William Bennett, is closely alligned to the humanities and the colleges of arts and sciences. Therefore, it is necessary for teacher educators to forward proposals of outstanding quality and extensive ramifications for the improvement of teacher education curriculum in order to receive recognition from Secretary Bennett. Secondly, strong lobby and pressure groups appear to have more accessibility and power in achieving federal funding than individuals who are the consumer clientele of teacher education.

Despite the extensive explanation of professional associations and government agencies presented in this paper, it is important to realize the importance of the individual school system or a group of classroom teachers as influencers of teacher education curriculum. Because of teacher education's dependency on the public schools for field experience placements, for observations, for participation and for student teaching, the linkage between public schools and the SCDE's must be based on trust, open communication and the respect of each unit's respective role in the preparation of the preservice teacher. The use of an advisory board composed of public school personnel and faculty from the professional unit can be very helpful in developing programs cooperatively. Examples of the influence of public school personnel can be evidenced in their requests for more techniques of classroom management and diagnostic-prescriptive strategies which have now been infused in the teacher education curriculum in many professional units.

Higher Education

Attention is now focused on the role of higher education and its influence on teacher education curriculum. To be considered within this category are central administration, liberal arts faculty, academic specialists and academic councils and the field of influence they exert on the entire scope of teacher education curriculum.

The central administration whose membership differs depending on the institution is a strong controlling force in the development or change of teacher education curriculum. Institutions of higher education are also political arenas where decisions are sometimes made outside the democratic process. There have been examples of the implementation of liberal arts curricula by administrative edict without benefit of faculty input because the chief executive officer felt such a change would be advantageous to the institution. Because of the direct relationship of the liberal arts to the program of teacher education, an imposed curriculum could make many changes in the focus of teacher education. The greatest influence of central administration lies in the area of financial resources for programs and personnel. Teacher education does not produce large amounts of money regenerated back into the institutional alumni coffers, neither is it a status preprofessional preparation program. Coupled with the negative publicity received by teacher education in the last few years, the budget crunch often begins with teacher education. In order to provide innovative, quality programs in teacher education, the process of having budgets determined by FTE's should be eliminated and programs should be funded for their quality rather than their size.

"For many years, a major disagreement has existed between liberal arts faculty and teacher educators over the balance of general versus professional content in the undergraduate teacher education curriculum (Cruckshank, 1984, p. 4). Although teacher education is one of the few undergraduate professional programs, it is treated like any other undergraduate major for students. An interesting phenomenon occurs in the organization of the college or university in relation to whom is responsible for teacher education. Although the SCDE is given the primary responsibility and authority for the program, the largest proportion of the courses are required in the college of arts and science. Therefore, who is accountable? Both the SCDE and the college of arts and sciences are competing for limited funds and the brightest students. It is the feeling of most colleges of arts and sciences that the training function for teachers is clearly peripheral to the primary function of the arts and science units.

Clark and Marker (1975) state the reward systems for arts and sciences professors are through research, independent inquiry, publishing and the instruction of advanced graduate students. "If the reward system does not reinforce excellence in undergraduate instruction in arts and science units, it cannot support excellence in teacher preparation programs" (Clarke & Marker, 1975, p. 59). Denemark (1972) criticizes the liberal arts component by stating "they offer narrow, formalized introductions to a string of disconnected subjects superficially considered through emphasis upon nomenclature, classified systems or the manipulation of pacphenalia." In terms of status, teacher education is low man in the order while arts and science professors hold high status positions. Because of the status position, the number of required courses housed in arts and science, the large voting block enjoyed by the college of arts and science, this college will be a politically powerful force in all negotiations concerning teacher education curriculum.

A second powerful force within the higher education construct is the academic specialist. Often this person is at odds with both the teacher educator and the liberal arts professor because of his intense interest in specialization in his field. The academic specialist constructs and controls the major in his area. He is able to dictate the number of hours required by the student teacher specializing in his academic major. The academic specialist, in conjunction with the committee process, petitions for more and more hours added to his major. The ramifications for both the teacher education and the liberal arts curriculum is a decline of the number of hours required in teacher education and liberal arts.

The final force in higher education's impact on teacher education is the academic council structure. Governance in higher education is based on hierarchial committee structures. The balance of power on important policy-making committees can greatly influence the focus and quality of teacher education programs.

"The assumption that cooperative, self-serving relationships exist among the various organizations assigned functions in the education of teachers is one of the egregious errors made by observers of the teacher education scene." (Clark & Marker, 1975, p. 78)

Professional Unit

The discussion of the professional unit will be based on the following definition proposed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (1985, p. 1). "The professional education unit is the college, school, department, or other administrative body within the institution that is officially responsible for the preparation of students who seek state certification as teachers and of other professional education personnel."

The most important influence on the curriculum of teacher education within the professional unit is the quality of the faculty. Quality is defined as the level of expertise and understanding of the function of teacher education coupled with the commitment to work toward developing excellence in the program. Within the parameters of the professional unit are sub-groups teaching in the areas of foundations, elementary education, special education and all the other areas that comprise the unit. If these diverse groups can function cooperatively in the dual roles of specialization in their own areas as well as working toward the greater goal of an integrated quality teacher education program, they will form a powerful alliance as members of the professional unit.

The leadership of the professional unit has the power of final decision making in all areas of teacher education. If the leader is dynamic, visionary, insightful and understands teacher education, quality curricular development will become a major goal in the unit. "The leader must also resist pressure for change without careful assessment of that which is valuable" (Howey, Gaudner, 1983, p. 6). If the leader has little experience in the field of teacher education, is fearful of jeopardizing his position through assertive action, and does not have the cooperation of his faculty, teacher educaiton curriculum will remain "status quo."

"The quality of service rendered by an profession is directly proportional to the extent of its knowledge base and that this knowledge base depends on the robustness of the profession's research effort." (Smith, 1985, p. 690). Teacher education has long been criticized concerning the paucity of applied and basic research available in the field of education. However, in the last decade, the broadening of the knowledge base through meaningful research and development has been very evident. The characteristic of the knowledge base has become more scientific in nature through the efforts of the researchers in teacher education. Much of the research effort has stemmed from the pressure on faculty members of large institutions to "publish or perish". Those teacher education institutions which house graduate schools of education have invested in research an development to a much greater extent than small four-year liberal arts colleges. "Two thirds of the publications in research-oriented educational journals were produced by SCDE faculty members and over half the articles in publications addressed to practioners were produced by SCDE faculty members (Clark Lotto, 1981, p. 31). However, despite the increased research activity, Shalock (1983) states that large-scale, long-term, well-funded research efforts in teacher education are non-existent. Curricular changes must stem from an accurate research base. The development of such a base must receive both financial and psychological support from internal and external forces. Members of the faculty of the professional unit must receive renumeration and released time to support their research activities. Both basic and applied research must be considered as worthwhile activities. When these criteria have been met, research can become a powerful influencer of curricular change.

The move to a curricular format of an extended five-year program can become a viable force in curricular development and change. No longer would the concern for balance between the liberal arts and the professional program be of consuming proportions. The student in teacher education would follow a required pre-professional course which would become the prerequisite to the fifth hyear of professionalization courses. The extended time would also provide the potential for added breadth and depth in the curriculum.

A final force within the professional unit which should be considered is the feedback from both students in residence and alumni of the professional unit. NCATE accredited institutions have a built-in process for monitoring this feedback based on the standards of student participation in program evaluation and development and the evaluation of graduates. Since these groups form the consumer clientele of teacher education curriculum, they are a valuable pool of information for curricular development and change.

Summary

For success in any enterprise, control, cooperation and responsibility should be melded into a single entity for the purpose of the progress. Based on this report, it is evident tht curriculum in teacher education is subject to a multitude of forces and influences from a diversity of populations.

It is noted that many shifts have occurred in the factors that affect change. Baldridge and Deal (1981, p. 8) indicate:

1. A shift has occurred from inside to outside pressure for change in educational units. The stronger drive today is external pressure to make institutions efficient in their use of public funds and accountable for their product.

2. Incentives have shifted from voluntary improvements to mandatory requirements. Examples are competency testing, court ordered desegregation.

3. Response to growth has changed. Under financial pressures administrators now seek to detect and eliminate weak programs, whereas formerly they supported the development of new programs and the attracting of new student clientele.

In order for teacher education to survive, professors of teacher education must assume leadership in shaping future development and change in curriculum based on adequate research. They must lear to live in a professional state of accomodation with other components of the educational process. They must understand the power and the potential of teacher education in the society. They must learn to become more politically informed and active in the political process.

> ...control of teacher education by the colleges should be expanded into some of the areas traditionally controlled by the schools and that some of the responsibility for teacher education which has traditionally been borne by the colleges, should be shared by the schools...The "power struggle over the nature and content of education"-including teacher education-will go on. If the debate is informed, public, political and lively, than the best interests of the society, education, and teacher education will be served (Bush and Enemack, 1975, p. 294).

Implications for Teacher Education

Based on Parameters of Curriculum and the Forces That Impact On The Curriculum

1. Educational policy making is a political process in which educators must become active in order to be involved in decision making.

2. Formal linkages with society in general are necessary to provide a basis for cooperation.

3. Members of the profession must reach as much concensus as possible on specific issues in order to present a picture of cohesiveness and unity to society in general.

4. Members of the teacher education faculty must strive to inform members of the liberal arts faculty of the importance of liberal arts courses which meet the special needs of students entering the teaching field.

5. Professional organizations representing teacher education and special interest groups in teacher education must strive for unit of purpose.

6. The final implication for teacher education is depicted in Diagram #2. It is extremely important that greater influence in teacher education curriculum be exerted by Higher Education, the Professional Unit, Professional Associations, Public Schools, and Government Agencies.

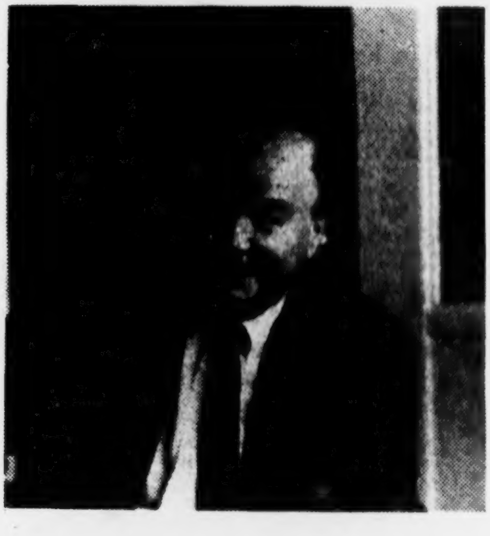
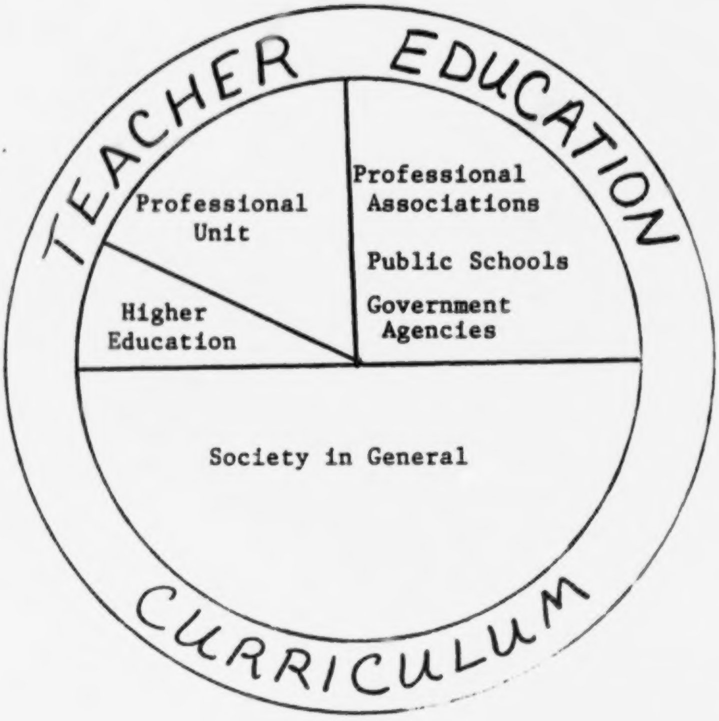


DIAGRAM #2

PROPOSED PERCENT OF FORCES ON CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION 1990


TEACHER EDUCATION
Professional Unit
Professional Associations
Public Schools
Government Agencies
Higher Education
Society in General
CURRICULUM

Positive Aspects of Teacher Education Today

Much has been writeen criticizing the quality of teacher education, its products and the programs that prepare the products. Eduators have reacted to the close scrutiny of their profession in ways that have positive ramifications for the education of teachers. As the quest for excellence continues, it is important to analyze the positive aspects of the profession which presently exist. A partial list of achievements and accomplishments will be discussed in this section.

1. The profession has become more intent in studying itself. The pressure of the firestorm of critical comments has shaken education out of complacency into action and introspection.

2. The knowledge base has become more highly developed in the areas of clinical practice, learning processes, and effective schooling (Smith, 1983).

3. A growing cooperation among groups of interested people appears to be emerging. Teacher educators, researchers and public school teachers are working together to achieve common goals.

4. Mandated programs such as special education for the handicapped and multi-cultural education have shown positive growth stemming from the response of teacher education.

5. Early childhood education has developed due to the pressures of an increased number of women in the workplace. Quality programs in early childhood have emerged for the preparation of teachers for positions in early childhood facilities and the primary grades.

6. "Teachers are more socially aware, professionally conscious, knowledgeable about learning theory and more student-oriented than teachers of an earlier age (Schuttenberg, 1983, p. 14).

7. Teacher educators are incorporating high technology equipment into classroom procedures. The applicability of computer programs for education programs has become an integral part of the

7. curriculum. The use of microteaching and video taping has increased in the college classroom.

8. The upgrading and expansion of standards for admission to teacher education has increased significantly including the use of competency tests for both entrance to and exit from the teacher preparation program.

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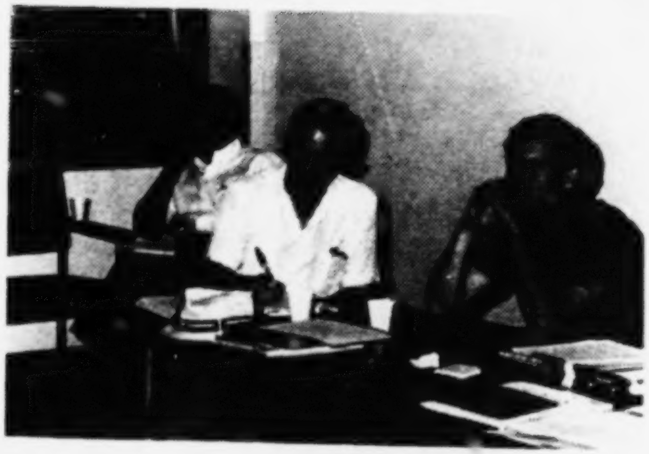

GROUP II

A WINDOW OF ANALYSIS FOR EXAMINING ONE MAJOR CURRICULUM RECOMMENDATION

Action Guide

Trenton Cooper
Vince Mahoney
Michael Tanner

The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education published a set of sixteen recommendations for the "improvement" of teacher education programs in its report, A Call For Change In Teacher Education, February, 1985. Financial support of the Commission's study was provided by such organizations as the United States Department of Education, the National Institute of Education, the Ford Foundation, the Hewlett Foundation, the Lilly Endowment, Inc. and the College of Education at the University of Texas at Austin. These funding sources have claimed that the Commission's recommendations expressed in the report are not necessarily those of the funding agencies. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has printed and distributed the Commission's report to stimulate discussion, study, and improvement of teacher education.

This group of teacher educators has selected to respond to most of the Commission recommendations with indications of acceptance or rejection including the implications of each recommendation. Our "window of analysis" on each recommendation provides considerations from practitioners in the field and from research when available.

Our intent is to create an action guide for implementing, modifying or rejecting the twelve recommendations. We selected the recommendations which appeared to be closely related to changes occuring in universities and states in the forefront in responding to recent criticisms of teacher preparation. A matrix, as indicated below, was created for examination of each recommendation.

I. Recommendation

II. Analysis:	Accept	Reject or Modify
Implications:	Insights Questions to Answer	Insights Questions to Answer
Resources:	5-10 idea sources	5-10 ideas or alternative models

III. Highlights:

The writers envisioned our readers as being members of committees which are implementing responses to criticisms within their schools and are searching for specific ideas.

* *

RECOMMENDATION #1

ADMISSION TO AND GRADUATION FROM TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS SHOULD BE BASED UPON RIGOROUS ACADEMIC AND PERFORMANCE STANDARDS.
(NATIONAL COMMISSION, 1985)

The National Commission recommended a thorough review of candidates at three points in teacher education programs: (1) before admission, (2) before student teacher approval, and (3) before graduation. At point one, "every candidate should demonstrate above-average collegiate-level scholarship, good critical-thinking skills, and competence in communication skills, particularly reading, writing, and speaking." (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985, p. 8) Means to assess these critical-thinking skills and scholarship were listed as paper and pencil tests, interviews and work samples. At point two, every teaching candidate "should demonstrate mastery of both the subject to be taught and the pedagogical foundations that underlie effective teaching." (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985, p. 8) At point three every teacher candidate "should demonstrate his or her knowledge and skills on three measures: (1) a test of knowledge of the subject to be taught, (2) a test of knowledge and application of the foundations, science, and processes of teaching, and (3) ability to teach effectively." (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985, p. 8).

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Where are the financial resources going to come from to install this ambitious series of testings at the three points in the teacher education programs in hundreds of colleges?	1. Should each college provide the financial resources and expensive research time to create these competency tests suggested at the three stages in any teacher education program?
2. Should state and federal funds be provided for this competency screening?	2. Is GPA (grade point average) a sufficient screening device for admission to teacher education?
3. How far above-average should teacher candidates achieve academically?	3. Can we specify all aspects of the term, "effective teaching"?
4. Are there other equally important characteristics desired in a teacher candidate besides that of high GPA?	4. Are paper and pencil tests and work samples adequate predictors of "effective teaching"?
5. Should not on-the-job performance in the field be an obvious first necessary condition (not a sufficient condition) for specifying any "effective teaching" performance?	5. Have educational researchers identified the major interaction effects in effective teaching?
6. At a more practical level, which instrument or instruments are appropriate to check a teacher candidate's competency in pedagogical foundations and the processes or methods of teaching?	6. Should there be multiple sets of criteria for specific teacher candidates for various cultural backgrounds?

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
7. Do we need a nationally normed instrument?	7. Can we count upon the "tooling up" of an adequate research work force to assist us in the production of valid and reliable indicators of "effective teaching"?
8. Are not states going to want different sets of instruments for teacher candidate screening?	8. Will states really see to it that quality will not be sacrificed in times of teacher shortages?
9. Should a national law prohibiting issuance of emergency teacher credentials be passed to bind all states to a minimum quality standard irregardless of supply and demand conditions in teaching?	9. Is there any likelihood that states would support such a national law as suggested in #9 of the yes column?

* *

Analysis:

A few brief comments on some of the questions raised above cannot be resisted. Teacher educators certainly agree with the idea that rigorous academic and performance standards must be maintained in all teacher education programs. We strongly agree that quality should not be sacrificed at any time, especially in times of national shortage.

There are many important characteristics desired of a teacher candidate besides academic competence. What about empathy toward learners, close association with or understanding of the culture of the learner; a pride in teaching, and a dedication to service to name only a few.

Researchers have recently found that effective teaching behaviors vary for students who have different socioeconomic, mental, and psychological characteristics (Brophy and Evertson, 1974) and (Cronbach and Snow, 1977). Effective teaching behaviors also vary for different grade levels and subject areas (Gage, 1978).

With regard to testing teachers on teaching skills and methods during their program, some generic teaching competency models exist now but nothing so complex as suggested or needed to implement the recommendation. As to a nationally normed instrument on teacher candidate competency in the pedagogical foundations of teaching for entry screening purposes, no such test exists now. The NTE (National Teacher Exam) appears to be closest to fulfilling the need at present, but it does not satisfy many educators. Some states have efforts under consideration to construct or use other instruments.

Other state departments of education advocate a continuous progress check of the candidate by means of faculty evaluation in the liberal arts and sciences outside the teacher education program. Still other state standards require continuous counseling and advisement for candidates as an effective screening procedure besides paper and pencil testing of potential teachers.

Resources and/or Alternative Sources

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1983). The Impact of Teacher Shortage and Surplus on Quality Issues in Teacher Education. see especially pages 15-20, 48-54, and 95-98.

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RECOMMENDATION #2

THE STATES, IN CONCERT WITH THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT, SHOULD LAUNCH A NATIONWIDE CAMPAIGN TO RECRUIT QUALIFIED CANDIDATES INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION
(NATIONAL COMMISSION, 1985)

"The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education recommended that policymakers must commit themselves to retaining and improving the quality of teachers even in the coming shortage. Schools are not immune to the laws of supply and demand. Standards must be lowered, so incentives will have to be raised. The public must be assured that the additional funds are purchasing quality education for children."

"School boards and administrators should assign teachers only to areas for which they have been specifically prepared and licensed. To expect equally competent performance in another subject or school level is unrealistic, and it is unfair to teachers and students alike."

"A national recruitment effort should be targeted toward the most able candidates....Federal and state governments should support recruitment by funding incentives and financial assistance, including scholarships, graduate fellowships, and forgivable loans to academically talented students."

"We challenge each college and university president to develop and maintain an academic and cultural climate wherein students enrolled in preservice and teacher education are accorded dignity and status comparable to that of students enrolled in other professional programs." (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985, pp. 8-9).

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Since the Federal Government is urged to launch a nationwide recruitment campaign for teacher candidates, who or what agency should conduct this?	1. Will state departments of certification avoid the intense pressure to fill the classrooms with "warm bodies" as the teacher shortage mounts in the late 80's?
2. Should a special national commission be appointed?	2. Can we define a quality candidate in teaching?
3. Is the national mood politically supportive for federal funding?	3. What about effective procedures to screen or select appropriate teacher candidates? Are there any standardized sets of these now?
4. Will the economic conditions of the nation presently support such nationwide funding or will the federal government pass this responsibility to the states?	4. How is the public to be assured that additional funds are purchasing quality education for children? By student test scores?
5. What is a qualified candidate? What academic background should a teacher posses?	5. Should state departments of education issue statewide regulations that prohibit job transfer of teachers outside of their major certidication area? Will school districts comply even if such a regulation is attempted? How long before political pressures would make exceptions to this?
6. What cultural background should a teacher candidate have?	6. Is it possible to legislate or mandate "dignity" of a profession or work status?

Analysis:

As a group of teacher educators, we approve of and support the idea to launch a nationwide campaign to recruit the best possible candidates into the teaching profession. The means or mechanisms by which this may be done ethically and honestly seem to be at issue. Certainly the national media has been negative about the teaching profession in the mid-eighties. But a false, unfulfilled set of promises related to teaching on national media is not needed.

The term quality candidate needs more definition and explanation to the general public. All professions want quality candidates. But how do other professions accomplish quality recruitment? Perhaps there are some lessons from medical, legal, and corporate worlds that may be used. As was true of recommendation #1, an issue of great concern, is whether or not sufficient basic educational research exists to accomplish significant aspects of selection or screening of teacher education candidates.

Finally, the numerous political and state governance issues and conflicts present in recommendation #2 make its implementation most difficult.

References and/or Alternatives

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RECOMMENDATION #3

SPECIAL PROGRAMS SHOULD BE DEVELOPED TO ATTRACT CAPABLE MINORITY TEACHER CANDIDATES

The national Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education has commented on the above recommendation as follows:

"To reverse the projected decline in numbers of minority teachers, special action is required. Federal and state governments, and private philanthropies should ensure that lack of finances will not bar qualified minority students to consider careers in teaching; colleges and universities should provide a supportive environment; and, above all, intellectually demanding teacher education programs should prepare graduates to meet certification requirements. (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985, p. 9)

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Will minority teacher candidates benefit from meeting the same standards for preparation as all other candidates?	1. Will the federal or state governments provide adequate monies for minority scholarships to teacher education programs?
2. Will competency testing reduce the number of available minority teacher candidates and thereby reduce opportunities for cross-cultural enrichment of minority learners?	2. Will individual college and university leadership and governance take upon themselves the responsibilities inherent in providing multi-cultural programs that produce quality teacher education candidates?
3. Should principals, counselors, teachers, and parents encourage not only minority students of high academic capability to enter teaching but also majority students?	3. Will salaries and working conditions be conducive to attracting minority teacher candidates? Are they conducive now only for majority teacher candidates?

Analysis:

The study group approves of the basic idea of special programs to attract capable minority students to teacher education. But we advocate that these special programs require the same amount of achievement and standards as those for the majority candidates. We would not wish to see any class or quality distinctions develop among teacher ranks as a whole. All teachers should meet minimum standards as agreed upon the profession as a whole.

References and/or Alternatives

36th Annual Report of the North Central Association Workshop (1983). Edited by: Don Jones. Revitalizing Teacher Education in the Mid-Eighties. see pages 31-67 and 131-167.

34th Annual Report of the North Central Association Workshop (1981). Edited by: Don Jones. Multicultural Education. see pages 136-39, pages 173-182.

35th Annual Report of the North Central Association Workshop (1982). Edited by: Don Jones. Governance and Leadership in Teacher Education. see pages 133-178 and pp. 175-195 and pp. 214-218.

37th Annual Report of the North Central Association Workshop (1984). Edited by: Don Jones. The Human Dimension.

RECOMMENDATION #5

FOLLOWING THEIR COMPLETION OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AND THE AWARDING OF A PROVISIONAL CERTIFICATE, NEW TEACHERS SHOULD COMPLETE AN INDUCTION PERIOD OR INTERNSHIP OF AT LEAST A YEAR'S DURATION FOR WHICH COMPENSATION IS PROVIDED

Implications

All states should develop internship experiences. Public schools, the profession and higher education should work together to develop this induction program. University professors and public school teachers will have to have reduced responsibilities. The intern will still have to make a professional income.

Questions to Answer

Can such an internship work with joint responsibility?

How will success be measured and accountability be maintained?

Who will supervise and grade?

Who will want to be teachers with a fifth year of training requirement?

Who will pay expenses of travel for supervision?

Will starting salaries after completing an internship provide a substantial incentive and reward?

Do university promotion and tenure procedures reward involvement in such programs?

Will teachers-to-be accept professional certification after graduating from a university?

Alternatives

"Time alone is not the key, since a five or six year training program could continue to emphasize preparation for a teaching role that is primarily technical in nature" (Lanier p. 33)

Universities will have to improve their present program and field experiences to assure successful entry into the teaching profession.

Universities will have to convince critics that their new programs meet all concerns. School districts will have to invest in their new teachers by providing services to beginners.

Universities can offer night seminars and summer courses and workshops aimed at successful immersion.

States could throw out teacher education as a certification requirement.

States could dramatically improve their salaries, and additional quality people would be attracted to the profession.

"Move away from Full-Time-Equivalent formula for high quality instruction" (Haberman, p. 144)

"There is no instance of any widespread practice in student teaching programs that is the result of research. Conversely, there

Questions to Answer	Alternatives
How will a fifth year requirement effect recruitment of teachers into programs when a teacher shortage is already predicted?	are no common practices that have been dropped from student teaching programs on the basis of research evidence." (Haberman, p. 74)

* *

Analysis:

The positions indicated by accepting, modifying or rejecting this recommendation will have to be altered when a few contextual dynamics are added. How will the teacher shortage looming on the horizon affect a call for a fifty year of training? What if students don't like the "provisional" certificate liabilities? and what about "student burn out"? We think that the call for a fifth year of training may be working against the reality of the job market and the recruitment needs of teacher preparation programs.

Resources

Berliner, David C. "Making the Right Changes in Preservice Teacher Education", Kappan Vol. 66 No. 2, October 1984, p. 94-96.

Clark, David L. "Better Teachers for the Year 2000: A Proposal for the Structural Reform of Teacher Education", Kappan Vol. 66 No. 2, October 1984, p. 116-120.

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Greenberg, J.D. (1983). The Core For Teacher Education: Open and Shut. Journal of Teacher Education, 34, 2-5.

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* *

RECOMMENDATION #6

STATES SHOULD ENCOURAGE AND ASSIST THE DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF EXPERIMENTAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS.

If Accepted

Implications

The commission suggests that states provide resources.

Colleges and universities should consider major structural changes, not just course modification.

States should assist universities to form consortia that build on the strengths of the various members.

Studies indicate that certified teachers are better. What is needed is "improved resources, deeper programs, more systematic and comprehensive treatment, and attraction of better students. "(Greenberg, p. 4)"

States can assist in dissemination of information, support teaming projects, consortia, networks, conferences, retreats, think tanks, action proposals, lobbying.

If Rejected

Experimental Ideas

Greenberg lists four categories of changes colleges should make to meet criticisms. (Greenberg, p. 4)

A future looking program could use a three dimensional model for teacher education conceptualized as: Academic, Instructional and Developmental Understanding. (Schuttenberg, p.15)

Professional behavior within teacher preparation classes must change. Professors will have to model desired behavior.

Instruction has to have these characteristics: student goal setting, reduction of requirements, teach language arts skills, shared learning characteristics, teaching students how to change, consciously raising student maturity level.

Colleges of Education will have to plan programs to support continuing education of their graduates throughout their careers.

Recommendations seven, eight, and nine are those related to "Accountability for Teacher Education." The introductory statement by the Commission sets the stage for these recommendations.

> Control over teacher education is too scattered: Colleges and universities decide whether to establish teacher education programs and states decide whether to permit them do do so. Each state sets its own standards for teacher education programs and for certification of teachers; each college or university decides how it will meet those standards and, after its programs receive state approval, whether to apply for national voluntary accreditation.

RECOMMENDATIONS #7 AND #8

(7) CERTIFICATION AND PROGRAM APPROVAL STANDARDS AND DECISIONS SHOULD CONTINUE TO BE STATE RESPONSIBILITIES IN CONSULTATION WITH THE PROFESSION.

(8) STATES SHOULD MAINTAIN AND STRICTLY ENFORCE RIGOROUS STANDARDS FOR PROGRAM REVIEW. VOLUNTARY NATIONAL ACCREDITATION SHOULD BE STRENGTHENED AND MADE TO SERVE AS A MEANS FOR IMPROVING TEACHER EDUCATION.

Implications

1. What would happen if each college or university set Certification Standards?
2. What support, if any, would teacher educators have if all program and certification decisions were made by each college or university?
3. Who is really responsible for teacher education accountability?
4. Will a step to simplify the complexity of certification be more easily accomplished state by state.

1. Could quality control in teacher education programs be adequate for teacher certification?
2. Would state legislatures support programs completely controlled by schools, colleges and departments of education as easily as those controlled by the state?
3. Can teacher education programs ignore the key roll now played by state education agencies?

A challenge facing teacher education today is what must replace our present curriculum so that a graduate has a level of competence sufficient to insure safety to the clients served. To produce such a graduate we must involve and have the full support of educational task forces, legislative subcommittees, state education departments, local schools, and the community.

Teacher job descriptions must improve or change is for naught at college level. (Corrigan)

NCATE has been redesigned. It includes a paragraph encouraging experimentation. If NCATE standards as now organized do not provide the best vehicle for assessing a unit undergoing change, there are alternative procedures. (NCATE, p. 6)

Recommendations E2, 3 in Nation At Risk realize that state and local officials have primary responsibility for financing and governing schools; therefore it is they who can impose their recommendations. Federal and state officials should cooperate to help meet needs of gifted, socioeconomicly disadvantaged, minority and handicapped populations. (Nation, p. 32)

State legislated mandates are extremely narrow and work against quality of teaching and schooling. Guidelines for legislation are provided by Hall. (Hall, p. 5)

"If context of teacher education programs cannot be used in the workspace, then Colleges of Education will be viewed as out of touch." (Corrigan, p. 9)

Preservice plans carried out by districts is site based apprenticeship.

Recommendations D2, 3, 6 in Nation At Risk can be state level concerns: Incentives for education majors, 11 month contracts, increased salaries. (Nation, p. 31)

"College faculties and state departments of education are cooperating as never before. It is unlikely that much further progress can be made apart from the concerted efforts of colleges, state departments and public schools." (Smith, p. 145)

Programs need to be heavily influenced by a humanistic outlook. Areas of special impact might be: selection and retention procedures, selection of standardized tests, interviews as evaluation, competencies and student teaching critiques and evaluations. (Trusock, et.al, p. 115)

Questions to Answer

- -Will states cooperate by waiving certification requirements for new programs? Will states adjust existing regulations, monitor progresss differently, and provide constructive feedback?
- -Can colleges and universities design, test and evaluate truly new programs?
- -Will job descriptions of public school teachers and professors change concurrently?
- -Will state and local organizations supply the necessary funding? Can they?
- -Will districts and states offer incentives, support 11-month contracts and increase salaries?
- -How can universities interface with on site apprenticeship programs created by district?
- -Will states work cooperatively with teacher education institutions to lobby for legislation that supports quality programs?
- -Can teacher education professors lobby effectively?
- -Will state certification standards be changed enough to allow innovation?

Analysis

Encouraging innovative programs at the state level takes patience. Do state departments have any patience left? Are teacher educators moving quickly enough to convince outside forces that they are making a sincere effort to innovate? Curriculum development as currently conducted is a cumbersome procedure, and independent professors can sabotage committee efforts.

Drastic changes are encouraged but they create anxiety and job insecurity. Can stressed professors stand many more anxiety? Can a better system for administration of Colleges of Education be created without bringing in such inappropriate models as those created in the business world? A model for innovation needs thinking time to create and extensive discussion to ensure cooperation and ownership for all concerned. It seems like the outside evaluators are tired of waiting and that they are impatient with the professor's excuses.

Resources and/or Alternative Recommendations

1. AACTE Task Force Report on the Impact of Teacher Shortage and Surplus on Quality Issues in Teacher Education
2. State Standards for Teacher Certification
3. State Standards for Public School Instruction
4. Summaries of Legislation both state and national which affect teacher certification
5. NCATE and other voluntary accrediting agencies reports on teacher education

* *

The third and last recommendation under the Commission's Accountability is Recommendation Nine. This recommendation is one which deals with the question, where shall programs of Teacher Education be located and who will control them? Because of concerns about teacher shortages, a few states are taking steps to remove teacher education from colleges and universities.

RECOMMENDATION #9

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS SHOULD CONTINUE TO BE LOCATED IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Who will plan the teacher education program for locations other than colleges or universities?	1. Can state departments of education and/or local schools plan and implement meaningful teacher preparation programs?
2. Can an apprenticeship model for preparing teachers provide adequate preparation for a profession?	2. Who will take the responsibility, if not colleges and universities, for any inadequacies in teacher education programs?
3. What criteria would the state use to certify teachers trained by apprenticeship?	3. What kind of reactions can we expect from the public if teachers have training outside colleges and universities?

Implications (continued)

If Accepted	If Rejected
4. How and by whom will the graduate of an apprenticeship program be fully evaluated?	4. What criteria for graduation will apprenticeship programs establish.

Because of the amount of research being done and the planning for improvement of teacher education by many concerned institutionsof higher education, a removal of the programs from colleges and universities would be disastrous.

Cruickshank (1985, p. 1) states that teacher education is a big business. Anyone familar with business procedures will agree that improvement comes about because of carefully planned, but bigger investments. In this same writing (p. 2), Cruickshank presents an analogy of teacher education with the theater, "Teacher education is a spectacular that requires a large cost but has a low budget."

Resources

1. Cruickshank, Donald R. Models for the Preparation of America's Teachers, The Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundations, Bloomington, Indiana, 1985.

2. AACTE Task Force Report on the Impact of Teacher Shortage and Surplus on Quality Issues in Teacher Education, 1985.

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4. State Standards for Public School Instruction.

Recommendation ten and eleven, under "Resources for Teacher Education" deals with treatment of teacher education as a low cost program. The Commission cites funding as being inadequate for (1) recruitment, (2) equipment, clinical supervision, research, and quality faculty.

RECOMMENDATION #10 AND #11 (P.23)

(10) SUFFICIENT RESOURCES MUST BE ASSIGNED TO TEACHER EDUCATION TO PROVIDE THOROUGH, RIGOROUS PROGRAMS

(11) FEDERAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS SHOULD PROVIDE SUPPORT AND ENCOURAGEMENT FOR THE FURTHER DEVELOPMENT, DISSEMINATION, AND USE OF RESEARCH INFORMATION IN EDUCATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. What kind of resources do we need to recruit the best students?	1. Are the funds now being provided for teacher education being used efficiently?
2. Will more available funds for teacher education programs assure us of competent teachers?	2. Why should the state or federal government provide research funds for teacher education?
3. What resources are needed for adequate support of teacher education research?	3. Why can't teacher educators develop a more rigorous program for teacher preparation on present budgets?
4. Should funds be provided to reevaluate and plan more rigorous teacher education programs?	4. Will the public support federal funding to provide more resources for classroom instruction?
5. What do we mean when we say thorough and rigorous teacher education programs?	5. Are larger resource budgets the answer for building a more rigorous teacher education program?
6. What can federal and state governments do to support and encourage more research in education and teacher education?	6. Are we asking too much of federal and state governments when we ask for additional funds for research projects in teacher education?

Without encouragement and sufficient resources the cadre of effective teachers will decrease and our schools will not progress.

Resources and/or Alternative Sources

1. Burnell, Jerrold B., "What Can Public Education Learn From Civil Service?", The Teacher Educator, Vol. 15, Number 3, Winter 1979-80, Ball State University, page 9.

2. Peseau, Bruce and Orr, Paul, "The Outrageous Underfunding of Teacher Education," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1980, pp. 100-102.

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4. Savage, David, "Block Grants Could Revamp Federal Role in Education," Phi Delta Kappan, May, 1981, p. 621.

5. Turnbull, Benda J. and Marshall S. Smith, "Issues for a New Administration: The Federal Role in Education," American Journal of Education, Vol. 89, Number 4, August 1981, pp. 396-427.

* *

Recommendation Fourteen comes under the heading of , "Conditions Necessary to Support the Highest Quality Teaching." The Commission states:

> We urge state and local school boards and others who are responsible for the work environment in schools to examine the physical and professional circumstances in which teachers work. These circumstances should be judged not only by past practices in schools, but also by the standards used in other professions requiring similar education and expertise.

RECOMMENDATION #14

TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITIES AND WORKING CONDITIONS SHOULD BE COMMENSURATE WITH THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE JOB

Implications

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Do unsatisfactory working conditions cause undue stress on teachers?	1. What affect does the working environment have on student learning?
2. Do teachers need time for research?	2. Should classroom teachers have the responsibility for doing research?
3. Should teachers have more autonomy and decision-making authority for school curriculum?	3. Why should teachers be concerned with the curriculum, is it not their job to implement what the experts have prepared?
4. Are teachers required to do too many tasks which could be done by non-professionals?	4. What kinds of considerations, other than a comfortable place to work, do teachers need?

Analysis:

The school system will benefit from making working conditions satisfactory. Less stress on teachers and a more efficient focus on the tasks for which they have been trained can save both time an money. An analysis can be made to find out what these things are at practically no cost.

If the nation's future teachers are expected to perform as effective teachers, it is imperative that we examine, analyze, and implement most, if not all of these recommendations.

Resources

1. Lawrence, Otis O., "Program Accountability Levels of Evidence," 30th NCA Workshop; Accountability in Teacher Education, 1978, pp. 73-75.

2. American Council on Education, "The Improvement of Teacher Education." The Commission On Teacher Education, Washington, D.C. 1957, pp. 263-264.

3. Teacher Development Personnel and Professional Growth Volume XIX, Number 4, Autumn 1980, Ohio State University, p. 264.

RECOMMENDATION #15

TEACHERS SHOULD BE PROVIDED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES AND INCENTIVES SO THAT THEY CAN CONSISTENTLY IMPROVE THEIR PRACTICE

Analysis:

-It is concluded that this recommendation cannot be rejected; therefore, we will list implications, questions and resources which must be considered when implementing this recommendation.

-Local school boards should provide opportunities for teachers to experience success in teaching. They should provide for full development of professional competence and develop plans with faculty. This usually means local programs need expansion from what is occuring now.

-Teachers have to be assigned to areas for which they are qualified and have appropriate class loads.

-Teachers need support services.

-Recertification of teachers should depend upon competency-based professional development that is evaluated locally.

-Staff development should be based upon research findings.

-Staff development should relate to career advancement, recertification and graduate coursework in effective, creative ways.

-Federal and state funds should be available for creating and evaluating staff development and its impact upon children.

-In-service activities do effect training practices (not all teachers and not every practice), enough to change teachers and improve student achievement, or attitudes, or behaviors (Gage, p. 92).

-Findings indicate that education programs of any kind reported in literature are moderately effective. Purposes for in-service programs have had the following successes: Increasing knowledge of participants-90%; Changing behavior-60%; Changing attitudes-42%; Effecting students-37% (Wade, p. 52).

-States can legislate state-wide minimum wage scales and yearly increments as Tennessee, Arkansas and Texas have done.

-States can provide scholarships for in-service teachers.

-The Texas Career Ladder concept is more than a pay scale. It is graduated re-certification requirements to assure teacher growth (Palaich, p. 51).

-California has authorized school districts to provide pre-service teacher education. District-based training programs may be initiated for preparing secondary teachers in subject area of shortage. Big cities and rural areas are using this authority to create programs for English, math and science teachers (Marsh, p. 34).

Questions To Ask:

-How can we raise the quality of teachers ina time of shortage? Three times as many people leave the profession in Texas as enter it. New black teachers are nonexistant and Hispanic numbers are declining.

-Can states promote quality changes by legislating new requirements for recertification?

-What kind of atmosphere is created by raising requirements without teacher input?

-Are states and local districts committed to changes they demand? (The amount of funding is a direct answer)

-What kind of incentives for teacher development will be effective?

-Can beginning teachers learn to be excellent teachers within the present demands made by districts (such as coaching, extra-curricular activities, 150 adolescents, 3 new preparations in 3 different rooms)?

Resources:

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Wade, R.K. What Makes A Difference In In-service Teacher Education? A Meta Analysis of Research. Educational Leadership, 42, p. 48-54.

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RECOMMENDATION #16

ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION SHOULD BE EXTENDED, FOCUSING ON INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ON CREATION OF CONDITIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE FOR TEACHERS

If Accepted	If Rejected
1. Building principals and superintendents are responsible for developing and promoting the environment for the professional growth of teachers.	1. If content of teacher education and administrator preparation programs cannot be used, colleges will be considered to be out of touch.

If Accepted	If Rejected
2. They are responsible for including teachers as partners.	2. We have to have a new relationship with public school supervisory and instructional personnel. Recognize and use competence of school persons in student intern and beginning teacher programs. Use superior administrators and teachers, as clinical faculty of teachers colleges as practicing physicians and lawyers are members of law faculties (Smith, p. 145)
3. Higher education administrative training programs should be examined and modified to teach explicit leadership skills.	
4. Administrative leadership includes delegating responsibilities and tasks so they have time to provide leadership.	
5. The public responses to problems of schools have generally followed a pyramid model in which decisions are made by some central authority, then passed along the chain of command until they are carried out by teachers. The teacher's role has been to follow orders, not make decisions. The events of recent history have shown that this model operates poorly. Change model to put administrators and supervisors at bottom. (Lanier, p. 31)	3. Supervisors, department heads, instructional lead teachers, and principals must take on the difficult task of changing those characteristics of the teaching environment that stifle improvement of instruction. (Glichman, p. 40)
6. Principals and superintendents must play a crucial leadership role in developing school and community support for teacher developed reforms. School boards must back them with professional development needed to be leaders. (Nation, p. 32)	

Questions To Ask:

- -Do administrators know how to create supportive environments?
- -Are administrators up to date on effective schools research results?
- -Are administrators trained as facilitators for instruction?
- -Should there be changes in job descriptions for administrators?
- -Are principals managers or curriculum developers?
- -Instead of extending the program, should there be basic changes in delivery?
- -How can schools allow and train teachers to take the lead in improving instructional planning?
- -How can teacher preparation programs best use administrators who are instructional leaders?

Resources

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Glickman, C.D. (1985). The Supervisor's Challenge: Changing the Teacher's Work Environment. Educational Leadership, 42, pp. 38-41.

Lanier, J.E. Teacher Education: Needed Research and Practice For The Preparation of Teaching Professionals. In D.C. Corrigan, D.J. Palmer and P.A. Alexander (Eds.). The Future of Teacher Education: Needed Research and Practice (pp. 13-36) College Station, Texas: Texas A & M University 77843, 1982.

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SUMMARY STATEMENT

The major problems which we ascertain with the recommendations are the common ones of money, effective administrative leadership in higher education, and improvement of general teaching conditions. In order to attract candidates of high quality, salaries must be improved to levels commensurate with other professions. Teaching responsibilities must be the major part of a teacher's day rather than many non-instructional tasks of minor importance.

General implications of AACTE Recommendations:

1. Financial resources for teacher education program improvements must be forthcoming from federal, state, and corporate sources.
2. More than GPA (grade point average) must be designated for screening purposes of candidates for teacher education.
3. More than paper and pencil tests must be utilized to check basic competencies of candidates for teacher education. Evaluation techniques should always be student centered.
4. Large, well-financed, research based projects in teacher education should determine more precisely the minimal generic competencies of effective teaching behaviors. Possibly, an eventual nationally normed competency instrument could be produced.
5. Federal and state governments should provide massive funds for recruiting quality students to teacher education, and should encourage private foundations to provide scholarships to prospective teachers.
6. University teacher preparation professors need to make a greater effort to educate politicians and the general public about what occurs within teacher education programs. Changes implemented to answer criticism and rationale for procedures that are sound need to be disseminated widely in the popular press not just professional journals.
7. The recommendations of AACTE should be heeded seriously by all teacher education leaders. Changes or improvements in teacher education need to be made as quickly and carefully as possible so as to build good public support and effectively serve future teacher candidates.

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GROUP III

THE PROFESSIONAL STUDIES COMPONENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION: MORE THAN COURSES AND GENERATING ACADEMIC CREDIT

Alta Burns
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A quality teacher preparation program is more than courses. This section will deal with the professional component of initial teacher preparation only. More specifically, it will discuss clinical, field, and other professional experiences in an attempt to emphasize the importance of these experiences (some generate credit and others all non-credit). Such experiences are often not closely identified with highly structured academic content courses which are always taken for academic credit.

General education, preprofessional studies, and academic specialization components in initial teacher preparation programs are very important; however, "it is the professional studies component that transforms the educated individual into a professional teacher." (AACTE, Feb. 1983, p. 5) The professional studies component in initial teacher preparation is comprised of: foundational studies in education, generic teaching knowledge and skills, specialized pedagogical knowledge and skills, and field and clinical laboratory experience. These should be viewed as interactive, not discrete parts of a fixed sequence.

The proposed final draft of NCATE Redesign, April, 1985 places strong emphasis on the professional studies component of teacher preparation. The following two quotations from the NCATE final draft represent more emphasis, not less, on this component:

Professional Studies

> The professional studies component prepares education students to work effectively in their professional education roles. This component is a well-planned sequence of courses and experiences consisting of both knowledge about education and clinical

> knowledge derived from professional practice in schools. The course offerings and experiences demonstrate the relation of appropriate knowledge to the realities of practice in schools and classrooms. (p. 27)

> Clinical and Field-Based Experiences
>
> Clinical and field-based experiences may include, but are not limited to: observations: micro-teaching; developing case studies of individual students; tutoring; assisting school administrators; translating theory into practice; curriculum development; use of instructional technology, including the computer; and participation in school-and-community-wide activities. (p. 30)

The general public, many legislators, and many college and university colleagues (including administrators) are seemingly unaware of the breadth and depth of clinical and field experiences now included in most initial teacher preparation programs. This should not be so. The media should be saturated with substantially detailed information describing these programs and their roles in the development of professional teachers.

It should be pointed out to consumers that field and clinical experiences are the elements of preparation programs which are the most sensitive areas to societal and public school needs and expectations. It should also be pointed out that they are outside the traditional "curriculum as a sequence of courses" mentality. In spite of the professional trend, New Jersey, and more recently Louisiana, appear to be largely ignoring the importance of professional education prior to initial teaching practice (AACTE Briefs, 1985, p. 3). Action of this kind is likely to be highly detrimental to the improvement of responsible teacher preparation programs. We cannot ignor the long-term needs of all of the public school students for short-term political convenience.

It is easy to organize factual and theoretical bodies of content sequentially and then to divide this content into courses. As essential as content components are in the initial preparation of teachers, it is equally important to have quality non-course experiences, both credit and non-credit. These experiences help develop teacher candidates who "identify with the teaching profession and possess an understanding of the range of responsibilities associated with a competent professional" (AACTE, Feb. 1983, p. 16).

Student teaching is generally recognized as the most meaningful of program requirements by preservice teachers. Early field experiences of various types and clinical experiences which are common to most programs (as well as those unique to some programs) reach well beyond content alone. These professional experiences are among the most important in bridging the gap from educated student to professional teacher.

For the purposes of this paper, courses will refer to structured academic content that is taken for academic credit. Field, clinical, and other professional learning experiences will be considered in the "more than courses" or non-course category. The non-course category may be credit or non-credit experiences.

These learning experiences may be interwoven into the professional component of the curriculum in a variety of ways. In addition, terminology and categories may vary among programs and authors. For a more precise, detailed, and indepth analysis of most of these learning experiences, refer to D.R. Cruickshank's book, Models for the Preparation of America's Teachers, 1984, Phi Delta Kappa edition. Cruickshank strongly emphasizes the professional component of teacher preparation programs. He especially emphasizes field and clinical experiences. However, it should be noted that very little research has been done to verify the value or effectiveness of the various field and clinical experiences (Cruickshank, 1984).

Though not exhaustive, the field, clinical, and other non-course professional learning experiences that follow are identified and emphasized according to their most likely classification. In designing contemporary education curricula it is essential that these experiences not only be provided but they should be the high priority items.

Field Experiences

Observation: Observation is typically a field experience. Though requirements are clearly defined to include structure and guidance from a faculty member, the student is often on his/her own to critically analyze the teaching/learning situation in a natural classroom(s). Since the experience is quite early in the program, the student has a great opportunity to begin interweaving theory and practice as well as having the opportunity to make a career choice, i.e., reinforce the commitment to become a teacher or change to a less challenging major.

Travers is critical of this practice of sending students to observe teachers in natural classrooms "because the role model they observe may be a negative one, for example, the teacher as an authoritarian" (Cruickshank, 1984, p. 63).

Instead, Travers proposes using films of effective teachers demonstrating the roles and abilities that contribute to their effectiveness.

The position of some writers is that the real experience of natural classroom observation is much more valuable than a contrived experience, no matter how good the model. However, this statement is not intended to negate the importance of contrived experiences in the total program.

Teachers Aide - Teachers Aide is usually a credit earning experience of one to four weeks in which the preservice teacher works very closely with the practicing teacher in the public school. This experience can be of great value when it immediately preceeds student teaching in the same classroom situation and during the same semester. Ordinarily, seminars and/or written reports and journals are required as part of the preservice teacher's class responsibilities

Practicum - Practicum is typically a credit earning, direct and concentrated experience with the actual age-levels for which the preservice teacher is preparing to attain certification. It can be pre-student teaching or student teaching itself. Its purpose is to provide opportunity for hands-on experience prior to becoming a practicing teacher.

Student Teaching - Student teaching is the culmination of the preservice teacher's experience. The duration is usually for a full day for eight to twelve weeks. The new NCATE standard is as follows: "The practicum for students preparing to teach is direct, substantial and full day for at least ten weeks" (NCATE Redesign, 1985, p. 30). As can be noted, the trend is for more quality field experience.

A preservice teacher could benefit by a more precise definition of exactly what student teaching is in terms of what competencies he/she must master in order to complete this part of the professional component successfully.

Clinical Experiences

Microteaching - Microteaching is a brief teaching encounter in which preservice teachers teach five to twenty-five minute lessons in their subject field from one to a small group of pupils who are usually peers (Cruickshank, 1984, p. 83-87). The purpose of microteaching lessons is to practice a specific technical skill of teaching until an acceptable level of performance is reached. Lessons are usually videotaped and critiqued.

Mirrow Teaching - Merely video recording of peer teaching (Cruickshank, 1984, p. 30).

Protocol Materials - Preservice teachers view a videotape of a significant event in a classroom and then are provided with related theoretical knowledge that illuminates the event. A protocol is an original record of an event that occurs naturally in a school or classroom (Cruickshank, 1984, p. 94).

Reflective Teaching - Preservice teachers teach brief, standardized lessons to peers, are given feedback by peers regarding their skill in presenting the lessons, and then reflect on the teaching they have done (Cruickshank, 1984, pp. 96-101).

Role Playing - Role playing provides opportunities for preservice teachers to act out different roles in non-threatening, contrived settings.

Simulation - In simulations, preservice teachers take on the role of a teacher in order to resolve common teaching concerns or problems (Cruickshank, 1984, p. 87).

Other Professional Experiences

Seminars - Many non-credit and some credit seminars are commonplace in the preparation of professional educators in quality preservice programs. These seminars are typically required and are commonly a significant part of observational and other pre-student teaching field experiences. They are also a part of most student teaching experiences.

Professional Organization Affiliations - Quality initial teacher preparation programs sponsor student professional educational organizations on campus. Conscious efforts are made to develop the professional organization into a very active one that extends beyond the campus to the state and national levels. Student membership is actively solicited at both the elementary and secondary levels early in their programs.

Students who are actively involved in professsional organizations have a better chance of keeping abreast of trends, new developments, critical issues, etc. which may impact on them and to which they may be able to contribute in some way. Student selected programs vastly broaden and deepenthe pre-service student's perspective of teaching. Experience of the student in the professional organizations on campus should be encouraged to help each preservice teacher candidate to "identify with the teaching profession and possess an understanding of the range of responsibilities associated with a competent professional" (AACTE, Feb., 1983, p. 16).

Community Service - Iowa Wesleyan College has a required non-credit Responsible Social Involvement (RSI) program in which each student in the college serves a minimum of 200 clock hours in voluntary work experience in the community as a degree requirement. Working with children or adolescents will satisfy this community service requirement for teacher education students at both the elementary and secondary levels.

Youth Experience - Iowa Wesleyan also requires all elementary and secondary preservice teachers to serve a minimum total of 25 clock hours before program completion working with children or adolescents in situations outside the school setting such as playgrounds, YMCA's churches, camps, etc. This requirement may be satisfied by appropriate RSI service (NCATE Self Study, 1984).

Experimentation and Innovation

Innovation and experimentation must continue to be given high priority within the education profession. However, many times we need a jolt to move us off dead center in our thinking, especially with regard to changes in the curriculum. Harold Benjamin's book entitled, The Sabre Toothed Curriculum (1939) should be required reading for all those who are charged with making curriculum decisions. Benjamin's classic, written as a satire, makes it easy to identify with the need to change according to the needs of society.

The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education report (AACTE, 1985) in Recommendation #6 says: "States should encourage and assist the development and evaluation of experimental teacher education progams." (p. 16)

Furthermore, in NCATE Redesign (NCATE, 1985) we find the following:

> Responsible experimentation and innovation are essential to the improvement of professional education. A deliberate attempt has been made in these standards to encourage diversity, imagination, and innovation in institutional planning. New programs and sturctures to prepare professinal educators to meet pressing social needs are encouraged. Of course, a unit must assume responsibility for the quality of each of its programs, regular and experimental (p. 5).

The Christensen Experience:
Integrating Methods Courses with Field Experiences

An innovative approach to integrting methods courses with field experiences has been tried for a year at Northern Arizona University. In cooperation with Christensen Elementary School, Flagstaff Public Schools, Dr. Haskell Cannon and Dr. Peggy

VerVelde developed a fourteen-hour integrated block of credit for twenty-eight students during their junior year in which they were to apply theory and ideas to actual classroom teaching with elementary age children. The fourteen-hour block of course credit included eight hours of reading methods, two hours of language arts methods, two hours of children's literature, and two hours of teacher aide practicum. Everyone was in the public school from 8:00 to 12:00 A.M. daily for sixteen weeks. It will be interesting to see if this innovation can survive over time. Dr. Cannon was verypleased with the initial results experienced during he first year of operation.

New innovations and approaches to the curriculum in professional teacher education programs should be closely observed. The successful ones should be exported,if possible.

Summary

If we look for a philosophic base to guide our curricular decisions, we must value the democratic ideal of "equal opportunity for all" above "elitism" (Edson, 1985) or preferential opportunity for the few. Granted, this makes the job of teacher education more difficult and complex, but it certainly does not make it less of a profession by attempting to serve all of the students rather than the few. One of the greatest strengths of our educational system is its possibility for using diverse means to meet state and local needs of the communities in which the educational institution is located. This option must be preserved.

Many of the critics, as well as "task forces" and "commissions" of recent years, have been comprised of members of a somewhat elite segment of our society. They have been presidents and administrators of colleges, governors, legislators and congressmen, professional organization presidents, state department of education administrators, and sometimes a public school administrator. In addition, outside agencies usually favor a special interest emphasis. It seems to be very difficult to get to a level of concern which looks to the "audience", or students in the public schools, with their diverse needs as a starting point for all curricular decisions. If we start here, the public school practicing classroom teacher becomes the center-piece of all meaningful action or change. Their roles must be considered.

We cannot continue to look for ways to prepare teachers in a rigid homogeneous way by proposing a national curriculum for all preservice teachers. Though a common core of generic professional knowledge is desirable, we must promote diversity in the clinical and field experiences if we are to prepare truly professional preservice teachers to meet the needs of a heterogeneous public school student population, not to mention to serve the legitimate multicultural needs of our society.

Implications

1. More quality research is needed in all clinical and field experience areas.
2. Teacher educators should look beyond specific courses or academic content for ways to develop professional teachers.
3. Public school practicing classroom teachers must be the centerpiece of meaningful research, action, and change in preservice teacher education programs.
4. The heterogeneous make-up of the public schools, with the diverse student needs it implies, must not be underestimated in the curriculum decision-making process.
5. Society will ultimately determine the direction of schooling and, in turn, the direction of teacher preparation.

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The Varied Expectations Which Teachers Must Meet

Alta Burns
Ray Gibson

Introduction

Teaching is a profession. As a profession, it is required that its members, practicing teaches, be proficient in making very complex professional decisions. Further, this requires that the preparation of the professional teacher go far beyond the very important and essential step of learning content in courses. The following article is essentially concerned with four-year initial teacher preparation programs, even though five-year or other extended programs are currently in practice in some states. The primary intent is to encourage all of those in the process of curricular decision-making, especially in the professional studies component area, to look beyond specific courses for ways to develop a professional teacher. A second intent is to encourage decision makers to examine carefully the hetrogeneous nature of public schools for clues regarding needed change.

This article is divided into two major sections: (1) a job description of the "real world" practicing teacher whose demands extend beyond the requirement of knowledge of subject matter, and (2) an identification and brief description of selected field, clincial, and other professional learning experiences which are so essential in quality teacher preparation programs. In addition, one interesting innovation which integrates methods and field experiences is presented.

PRACTICING TEACHERS; MORE THAN CONVEYORS OF KNOWLEDGE

The comprehensive school stresses the general welfare of all pupils and emphasizes a well-balanced curriculum; at the same time, it places a multiple claim on the teachers time for numerous tasks outside of teaching. According to recent opinion polls, a large segment of the public believes that improving teacher qualities is the best way to improve the schools. (AACTE Feb., 1983). It appears evident that there is a devision of opinion about how administrators assign duties, and how teachers see expectations of job execution.

One factor which causes this difference reltes to the demands upon teacher time for "...more than courses."

The complexity of teacher duties has snow-balled and includes many responsibilities outside classrooms, such as pupils records, staff development, involvement in professional educational field experiences, sponsoring club/organizations, creating lesson plans, advisement, numerous committee assignments, recruiting, presentations to the public,not to mention research. Teachers are expected to assume added obligations to develop attitudes, values, self concepts, serve as counselors, develop usage of extrensic rewards, serve as tools for maintaining growth and development to motivate, create and solve problems and concomitant learning leading to self-confidence, plus offering opportunities for competition and cooperation. As self-confidence and abilities increase, students must be challenged to continue exploring and discovering and performing so that a powerful humanizing sum is obtained, and this requires ultimate professional skill. All has not been smooth for the classroom teacher in the past few decades. School programs have characteristically changed to meet the purposes established by society, thus placing more demands upon teachers. Whether or not a teacher can do equal justice to physical, mental, emotional, and social objectives remains a moot question.

What are the educational responsibilities of the home, school, church, community? How can we get each of these institutions to accept its own contribution toward a blending together into a unified effort to edudate the young people of the future? Students range in IQ from dull to average, above average, moderately gifted, and highly gifted. Each youth must be taught how to succeed in selected tasks according to his/her own individual abilities. In some educational tasks, schools try to place students in homogenious grouping in the classroom, but some of the smaller schools cannot follow this pattern; therefore increasing the teachers task.

Elementary teachers have added responsibilities of playground duty, hall duty, changes of bulletin boards, lunch room monitoring, ball games, cleaning chalk boards, recess, art, PTA programs, management, sharing of multi-purpose facilities, and the list goes on. The teacher who cannot work effectively as a member of a team, who has not developed skills of democratic cooperation, cannot succeed in contemporary elementary schools. (Doll, 1982). Both elementary and secondary schools have additional problems of mainstreaming gifted, talented, bilingual, and handicapped (physical and mental) students as they attempt to deal with students from different cultural backgrounds. Somewhere along the way, students must learn to assume responsibility for their actions.

Additional obligations related to teaching on the secondary level might require time for the development of coursework, fulfilling administrative demands, counseling, planning of audio-visual supplies, parent/teacher conferencing, collecting lunch money, grading papers, bulletin board displays, monitoring hallways, planning pep rallies, and overall-all classroom management. Professional teachers are frequently engaged in advisement, serving as adjunct faculty, writing grant proposals, outside testing, developing new courses in addition to keeping office hours for student advisement. These are circumstances that use valuable teacher time, circumstances which may lead to discontent.

Summation from Simms (1985) indicates a new era for disciplining procedures came about in the eighties with teachers being assulted, disrespected, vandalized, questioned about rules and authority, open defiance, tardiness and absenteeism, lack of administrtive and public support producing increased feelings of helplessness. Needle, Griffin, Svendsen, & Berney (1979) listed discipline and student attitudes as number one and two out of eight stressors which prevented teachers from teaching effectively. Golladay and Joel (1978) found student discipline, attitudes, incompetent administrators, heavy work loads and lack of resources were major stressors.

As the poet Carl Sandburg asked: Where does this "wonderland of dreams and logic, fantasy and reason, where the roots and tenacles of mind and personality floats and drifts" suddenly crystallize in the shape "a scheme, a form, a design, an invention, a machine, an image, a song, a symphony, a drama, a poem". Glemming (1968).

Classroom teachers can become victims destroyed in body and mind by power of medically and chemically induced adjustments. Doll (1982) Rights and responsibilities of teachers and the usage of time may influence teachers in this regard.

Evidence suggests that the roots of discontentment may relate to demands for teachers' time negate their dedication as professionals. With the passing of time, responsibilities "beyond coursework" become easier and less time consuming, but administrators are still obligated to promote the quality of life-styles of their staff as well as prevent teacher burnout. A goal for administrators must be to maintain a competent and satisfied faculty which can achieve its full potential under satisfactory conditions.

In order for competency to exist and teachers to have time for the numerous task demanded, longer working days and more school days throughout the year might be a solution (industry operates with an eight-hour work day). Intelligent planning looks a social and educational trends of past decades as well as projecting one's ideas into the twenty-first century. Educational change is constantly accelerated, therefore, the demands of today must be adaptable to those of tomorrow.

Faculty loads in the teaching profession exhibit differences in assignments for teachers in public schools as opposed to teachers in colleges and universities. The teaching load of undergraduate higher education faculty is typically equivalent to twelve semester hours, graduate faculty nine. Public school faculty time allocations are determined on different bases.

Workloads for any level teaching should adequately reflect the total assignment internally and externally for innovative programs and for competency in teaching and service. Public school teachers are governed by the established procedures in individual schools. Although time allotment in terms of percentages for outside assignments are necessary and, in fact, assist in providing direction for the program, they should be flexible and adaptable to fill the varying needs of individuals, schools, and systems. Good teachers will always be in demand especially those who possess needed expertise, understanding, versatility, and skills to provide instruction for diversified responsibilities. Assignments and expectations should be integrated into the methods courses or other classes designed to include extra class responsibilities. Being a teacher is more than knowing course content. Where do teacher education students gain this professional knowledge so important for success in the classroom from day one? Qualities such as, parent/teacher conferences, community and professional expectations, audio-visual skills, individualized tutoring, and disciplining techniques distract from what teachers were initially hired to do. Teachers are hired in their teaching concentrations to provide qualityinstruction in the classroom.

Administrators should possess an understanding of the range of responsibilities associated with classroom instruction. Incentive programs should be established to help improve teaching through on-going staff development during school hours. Travel opportunities should be offered, career ladders established, and opportunities to advance within the teaching profession should be provided.

SUGGESTIONS;

In order to increase effectiveness, efforts must be made to provide incentives. Following are presented incentives which are directed toward keeping outstanding teachers in the classroom.

1. Effective orientation programs for new personnel.
2. Written job descriptions and established working assignments within the school.
3. Reasonable limit upon time devoted to activities other than teaching.

4. Encouragement, given to teachers thru individual programs for professional growth.

5. Assistance for teachers to pursue professional advancement.

6. Develop a questionnaire to ascertain interest of staff and establish guidelines for feedback.

7. Keep an open communication flowing.

8. Sabbatical leaves should be available and used.

9. Secretarial assistance.

10. Realistic classroom duties and performance objectives.

11. Adequate teaching supplies, space, work environment and salaries.

Some extra assignments are necessary, but the workload of teachers can be lightened thru decreased class size, good administrative support, teacher aides, adequate supplies.

The work environment must have its own reward structure and it must provide sufficient prestige to attract and continue to hold highly qualified individuals in the teaching profession. Teachers need to feel appreciation from their superiors as well as sense satisfaction from their individual endeavors. Professors must support each other by continually growing and developing. Teachers and professors are expected to be devoted to continued improvement of the teaching profession.

It is only through meaningful participation that teachers and pupils grow in their ability to function effectively in our society. Teachers must become proficient in spite of diversions such as giving of themselves to after school hours, and community services. Problems of low self-esteem develop and a sense of helplessness sets in when inadequate conditions prevail. When practical or menial abstract tasks are allowed to dominate teacher time, the intellectual environment is crippled through enforced policies regarding related assignments outside teaching responsibilities.

The teaching profession should insist that teachers deserve significantly greater respect, rewards, and recognition from John Q. Public, legislators, and administrators.

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Preparing Teachers For The Future
More Of The Same Classes

William E. Roweton

Quandries about the future of teacher preparation invite vital and encompassing questions of human learning. What is the future of human learning? Where and how will it occur? Will schools change? Traditionally, the preparation of teachers is justified primarily by what schools do. Change schools, and teacher preparation programs accomodate, eventually.

Predicting the future is an ancient art but certainly not a perfected one. Little is certain about the future of schools, and what results for some educators is anxiety mixed with excitement, longing for the past, hope for the future, and questions.

Predicting The Future:

Prediction strategies are invariably based on presuppositions. Miller (1981) explains:

> Some of us feel that what happens in the future is like the roll of the dice--strictly chance. Others view the future as entirely predetermined. More hopeful individuals see the future as a river flowing irrevocably in a given direction but with some chance of making minor course changes. Futurists on the other hand, look at the future in terms of possibilities, probabilities, and preferabilities. (p. 11)

The World Future Society distinguishes between futurists and forecasters. Forecasters speculate about the future by extending existing (or barely evident) trends. For example, electronic information databases are just now readily available through microcomputing technology, and a forecaster speculate about flooding our culture with even more waves of information. A futurist, in contrast, builds scenarios on trends, events, or variables which are not currently evident or valued.

Most literature on school futures is speculative forecasting and not futurism. In fact, according to Geroge Leonard (1984), current educational commission reports construct "new" schools for the twenty-first century by refurbishing "old" ones:

> Will the schools emerge transformed? Sadly, the answer is no...the resulting school would be fundamentally no different from the school of today...Teachers would still be standing or sitting in front of some twenty to twenty-five mostly passive students of the same age and giving out the same information at the same time to all these students, regardless of individual abilities, cultural backgrounds, or learning styles (p. 48).

Is it more prudent to be a forecaster or a futurist? Who knows. Interestingly enough, both share assumptions about our educational future.

Keeping Our Schools

Both forecasters and futurists agree with Heraclitus: "Nothing is permanent but change."

Tomorrow's education will be qualitatively and quantitatively different than it is today. As life evolves, different educational preparation is required. Bentley Glass's comment in 1968 underscores this them: "The educated man of yesterday is the maladjusted and uneducated man of today and the culturally illiteate misfit of tomorrow" (see Shane & Tabler, 1981, p. 47).

More than a decade later, Shane and Tabler (1981) unashamedly delivered the same message:

> Whatever differences there were in their

> images of the future among the scholars with whom we consulted, there was general agreement that an educated, informed, world citizenry has become consumately important (p. 5).

There is no guarantee that institutional schooling will exist in the future or, if it exists, that schools will entertain any of the curricular goals that they do today. Human learning of the future may be supported by environments foreign to today's twentiety-centure schoolhouse.

Schools do not own learning. Evolving social conventions have simply willed to schools the primary responsibilities. Schools exist because of the industrial revolution, the emergence of cities, and the changing nature of the American family. As any lawyer knows, wills are changeable.

As educational commissions found, it is more expedient to be a forecaster than a futurist. It is easier to stretch familiar models than it is to shift American education paradigmatically. Imagining tomorrow's schools as extensions of today's traditional curricular concerns of content, target population, management, method, etc., remain viable.

Harold and June Shane (see Toffler, 1974) forecasted trends from mass to personalized teaching, from single to multiple learnings, from passive to active modes, from rigid to flexible schedules, from formal skill training to questioning, from teacher directive to child initiative, from isolated to interrelated content, from note learning to problem solving, from textbooks to media, and from passive mastery to active intellectual stimulation. In short, more involvement is expected of learners, and the classroom teacher is no longer pre-eminently a director.

Seif (1979) imagined ten emerging foci of educational practice in Toffler's Third Wave:

1. Technological mastery.
2. Survival skills.
3. Cooperative living.
4. Developing life options.
5. Self-directed learning.
6. Creative problem solving, etc.

7. Communication.

8. Present issues-oriented eduction on a world perspective.

9. Value and moral education.

10. People matter.

True to forecasting, Seif stretches existing visions.

The Club of Rome's report, No limits to learning (see Feather, 1980), promotes "no limit learning" as one rational way to anticipate the future educationally. The essential traits of no limit learning are (1) anticipation--the capacity to face new situations, and (2) participation--the ability to work in group decision making. Simply, successful adaptation requires new information and behaviors and attitudes.

Tafel (1984, p. 8) outlines twenty-three changing directions for American education. Yet, in general, Tafel feels that teachers will not become encyclopedic in the age of information but, rather, "...preparation programs need to emphasize how learners gain access to information, how they use information, and how they create new knowledge" (p. 8). Also, Tafel feels that the future "...educator pervades all aspects of life" (p. 8). All this, Tafel concludes, will be reflected in an expanding preparation of teachers.

Bruce Joyce (1981) offered his conceptualization of the future school. And few professional educators have enjoyed for so long such an advantageous perspective. As a prolific researcher and author, Joyce held forth for years at Teachers College, Columbia, and is now located at Booksend Laboratory in Palo Alto, California. Joyce looks to the future and selectively sees more of what we already have.

> ...we can envision a future which is really not all that strange in that nearly everything we can envision takes place in some form in quite a number of schools today. Our problem is to reconstruct the environments in which nearly all professionals work, so that the good ideas of today are released to operate everywhere...(p. 128).

Implications

Anticiating the future for American schools and the preparation of teachers are both exciting and disturbing. I conclude, like Tafel (1984, p. 9), "The role of teacher educators in the creation of the future remains uncertain." The same could be said for teachers and schools.

When future directions are so uncertain, it is impossible to plan in detail. And when details are unavailable, the only sane response, according to both forecasters and futurists, is proactive problem solving attitudes and skills. In Boy Scout parlance, be prepared, Carl Backman (1984) writes:

> Personnel involved in teacher preparation programs must find means by which they can keep themselves not only up to date but also ahead of school-related matters perceived as relevant by classroom teachers. (p. 3)
>
> We need to be field-testing the procedures that will be the basis for future changes in school practices--testing the conditions which permit school improvement to occur (p. 4).

Educators, including those who prepare teachers, can be instrumental in shaping future schools. However, their influence will depend upon the amount of active study, planning, field-testing, and risk-taking that professional educators are willing to invest. To paraphrase B.F. Skinner (e.g., 1983), the future reflects those who engineer it. Those who engineer it. Those who passively wait and worry will be shuttled to the periphery. Eductors, and that includes those who prepare teachers, mut be skilled visionaries as well as competent functionaries.

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Pressure Groups and Eduction:
A Call For A Perspective Which Expands Understanding

Darold C. Simms

Many attacks upon education come from those advocating Culturalist, Revisionist, or Pluralist views. Culturalists believe that education has focused too narrowly upon schooling as an institution and has neglected other agencies that educate the young and old alike. Revisionists state that public schools have played a major role in promoting wrong values and forcing oppressive attitudes of the dominant economic and political classes upon defenseless and reluctant lower classes. Pluralism seeks the moral authority an legitimacy for eduction in the many diverse communities that serve to bind individuals and groups together on the bases of religious, racial, ethnic, linguistic, cultural or local cohension and unity.

Critics espousing these differing views include the following: Paul Goodman, who found that modern American society was no longer promoting growth but stifling it and saw public schools as concentration camps designed to socialize the young to the dominant economic and social values of society. Edgar Z. Fridenberg stated that society was stamping out individual differences that should be honored and cultivated rather than imposing the economic motivation of a capitalistic society. Semour Itzkoff observed that the local autonomous cultural community is the natural context and authority for education and Theodore R. Sizer proposed that we should not reassert that the public schools are the one best system, that the part tht schools can play in education is limited and children could well divide their time between different kinds of schools like ethnic and community schools. As eduators are well aware, the views expressed above are a small part of a large number. Not mentioned of course is the input of various minority groups advocating programs that run the gamut from Bilingual Education to the need for teaching Black English.

Educators do not question the need of impartially serving the needs of all students within their jurisdiction. However, it can be understood if many feel innundated by the sheer mass of demands from special interest groups. These feelings are well understood if it is realized that educators operate under rigid guidelines that have been established by either law or practice and problems cn arise when special interest groups spend time hectoring school boards, administrators and principals. If thoe within our profession align themselves on any particular side of these problems, the end results are often heated dialogues, hurt feelings, anger and offer few concrete results. For these reasons, approaching these disputes with caution is advised.

Many ethnic groups are pushing schools to recognize and present efforts to maintain their cultures. If we, for purposes of this discussion, accept the premise that Blacks, Native Americans and individuals of Spanish Heritage are generally in favor of schools' aggressively respecting and enhancing their curriculums with these items, then educators are faced with vociferous exortations. Are these valid requests? Considering that our nation is an amalgamation of immigrants from many nations, this question could be answered with a cautious affirmative.

The obverse must be considered. The previously-mentioned groups are vocal in their support of these programs. Others often take an opposite view. Newly-arrived Russians, Koreans and Blacks of West-Indian extraction are often quite content to try their luck in this setting. Among these and other groups, surprisingly little criticism of existing school systems is found. To these must be added many Southeast Asians whose sojourn to our shores is mandated by promises of bodily harm if they return to their homelands.

This researcher believes that schools of education and individual school districts tend to overreact to demands from various groups. Although minority and cultural groups often have valid concerns, before going through drastic revamping of curriculums some areas must be considered: First, as any undergraduate anthropology student is aware, viewing a culture as a monolith is a grave error. As an example, culturally, Navajos and Apaches possess differing cultures and world views yet many would lump them under a similiar classification, American Indian. Secondly, culture is not static. It is continually in a process of change and changes at differing rates even within the same population and geographical area. Whose demands should be acceded to? Answers are vague, and often various factions within a pressure group are busy competing to have their views accepted. Third, cultural dynamics are such that a stronger culture will overwhelm a weaker. This can be done in various ways. First of course, is conquest. Other methods are more subtle. The greatest task of any racial or ethnic group is keeping its young people within the fold. Unfortunately, this has been proven difficult if not impossible. The hogan with its TV antenna or the Bedouin on his camel listening to a transistor radio are examples. Similar problems can be found among religious groups.

A word of caution. The previous paragraphs should not be construed as this researcher's advocating that schools of education and individual districts reject input from various groups. Maintenance of a pluralistic society demands that each has a right to be heard. What is being urged is that there be a slowing of the rapid demands for change, and programs advocated by vocal groups within and without education should be approached cautiously. This admonition also would apply to those proposing new and radical innovations. Possibly many advocating demolishing existing institutions for the purposes of erecting newer and more effective edifices should be required to study either history or Murphy's law.

What then is a solution? If organizations of an ethnic nature with to maintain their culture or language, this writer believes that they do so on their own as many groups currently are doing. A drive through any large city will demonstrate this fact as Greeks, Poles, Armenians, French, Spanish, Latvian, Estonian, Orientals and many other ethnic groups are flourishing and giving positive enrichment to a vibrant pluralistic society.

An associate of this writer who feels that schools should be more actively involved in maintaining cultures of minorities has observed that the purpose of multicultural programs is to prepare them to function within this society. This researcher has little argument with this contention. However, have education's responses to these demands been overly intelligent? Brilliant anthropologists can be found within all minorities. Have they been consulted and their inputs utilized? Although districts involved in creating programs to deal with students representing various backgrounds are careful to include community members whose views, although valid, are rigidly regional. In addition, many discussing culture so glibly cannot give an acceptable definition of the term.

It is difficult to predict what form civilization will take when the new century arrives. Therefore, educators cannot prepare their charges for any precise set of conditions. One philosopher stated that the purpose of a curriculum was to assist in improving life so that the future will be better than the past. Moreover, the curriculum must be planned with reference to placing essentials first and refinements second. These words were spoken by John Dewey in Democracy and Education. This writer interprets Dewey's words as meaning that students should be taught to demonstrate proficiency in English and math, knowledge of, and ability to work with computers and other competencies which will make them competitive in a changing marketplace.

Do cultural aspects have a place within the school setting? Definitely! These provide an inexhaustible supply of materials which can be used in teaching subjects across the curricular spectrum as well as giving students valuable skills in interpersonal relations and should be aggressively utilized. They should, in the view of this researcher, be subordinated to the larger task of preparing students to function in society. If they are allowed to dominate, they have the potential to damage those they are designed to serve.

Charles A. Silberman in his book, Crisis In Black and White, stated that schools should strive to provide their students with basic skills. No more and no less. Individuals who feel that schools should attempt to do more than this are actually harming those they are wishing to help. His position may be viewed as one extreme. However, attempting to revamp curricula to please one particular group could have far-reaching and damaging effects. This could be extremely serious if these demands are regional in nature. Communications and mass media have contributed to our living on a planet that is becoming less regional and more global. Educators should keep foremost in mind tht their task is to prepare students to compete in this society and should be unafraid to resist those wishing to advocte a particular vested interest. Educators, a little more militancy is mandated. Pressure groups often proclaim they have the welfare of their young people in mind. We do not? Mentioning our concern for students could convince some (although probably not all) critics that possibly we do not have to be adversaries. In advocating these views, the writer realizes that many representing various cultural backgrounds may view this discussion as a thrown gauntlet. It is.

CHAPTER TWO

INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH REPORTS

I. Burns, Alta, "A Futuristic Look at Dance in the School Curriculum"

II. Cooper, Trenton, "Competency Testing: How Can Teacher Education Help?"

III. Gibson, Ray, "Follow-Up Questionnaire for Use in Curricula Change Decisions for Pre-Service Teacher Preparation Programs"

IV. Haworth, Shirley, and D. Jones, "Pre-Service Teacher Education: What is the Current Curriculum?"

V. Jones, Barbara, "Selected Problems in Early Childhoon Education"

VI. Mahoney, Vincent, "A Modest Proposal for Iowa Teacher Evaluation of Beginning Classroom Teachers"

VII. Roweton, William, "Enhancing Instructional Competence in Small Colleges"

VIII. Simms, Darold, "Teacher Stress: The Enemy Within"

IX. Tanner, Michael, "A Learning Resource Center for Teacher Education"

A FUTURISTIC LOOK AT DANCE IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

by

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The main purpose of this report is to discern the place of dance in the curriculum of the future. This paper includes charts, a brief overview of the changing role of dance in college/university curriculums, objectives, goals, trends, traditionalists' and progressivists' aims of education; and the contribution of dance to the whole educational program. The holistic approach of dance will continue to broaden its fields of service, give immediate and long range satisfaction to performers, and contribute to physical, mental, social, and emotional development.

Theorizing about the future is as old as mankind itself. Man has the unique ability to sense a time beyond the immediate and tries to remove the curtain that separates today from tomorrow. The school curriculum in some areas might be perceived as looking forward while standing backward.

A dramatic contrast exists between what many of today's youth want to learn and what schools actually teach. A young person's world view is influenced due to television, movies, space travel, pornography, technology, medical advances, life in the streets, a wide range of reading materials, and modern music. All of these contribute to students' formulating their own set of opinions and morals. Because of this vast exposure to other thoughts and ideas, today's youth is more independent in seeking solutions to problems. These developments also affect school curricula.

Modern education prepare students to live in the future by concentrating on the past. The future is rarely considered in the traditional school curriculum. Even the so-called contemporary courses deal almost exclusively with events in the very recent past.

Dance is continually gaining prominence and is now recognized in the Olympics with the inclusion of ice dancing in the Winter Games and rhythmic gymnastics in the Summer Games. These add up to the tremendous prestige dance now has in the cultural as well as sports world.

Dance recently has been discovered by an enormous number of non-dancer adults who are flocking to health spas, school gyms, recreation halls, fitness franchises, sports clubs, and dancing schools to participate in the palatable exercise form of aerobics.

The beauty and grace of touch dancing (country/western, swing) is re-emerging culturally. Rhythmic gymnastics such as those now found in the Olympics include: rope, hopp, ball, clubs, and ribbon activities. The versatility of the dance curriculum provides an outlet suitable for everyone's individual preference.

The curriculum of a school includes the direct and indirect content and process experiences by which learners gain understanding, skills, attitudes, values, and ability to successfully apply this personal development to everyday living now and in the future. Curriculum happens whether planned or hidden, formal or informal; and it should offer direction and continuity to the total educational program with an eye toward the future.

One primary purpose of futuristics education is inspiring students to turn their sights to a time that is yet to come, studying what is going to happen and investigating history. An attempt will be made in this brief paper to prove the necessity of including rhythmical activities and dance in the school curriculum of teacher education programs of the future. An understanding of yesterday, without a commitment to the future, is knowledge without purpose. Other basic goals within the futuristics educational framework are to assist in the determination of relevant goals and objectives, qualitative aspects of the experience, and appropriateness for students in a contemporary society.

School requirements still remain too much the same. No one knows how many students drop out or persist in satisfactorily in school due to inadequate curriculum offerings and restrictive school policies. The public schools of Arkansas by state laws and local regulations require five units of mathematical science, four units of English, three units of social studies, one-half unit of physical education, one-half unit of health, and one-half unit of fine arts as standards of accreditation. As a result, the students are limited in selecting other courses that may fit their interests and talents more adequately. In addition, of the 380 Arkansas high schools, 204 do not offer art and 169 do not offer music. When these same curricula do not require art, music or dance, economics, foreign language, industrial arts, etc., the school program is saying in effect that these areas are unimportant, or definitely less significant.

DANCE IN EDUCATION

There is probably no area of education of more value in its contribution to education for the whole child as dance. Yet, there is no area that has suffered more from indifference, uncertainty, and spasmodic emphasis.

What is dance, and what distinguishes it from other physical forms of movement? The dictionary definition indicates that dance is set apart by being rhythmic movement usually with musical accompaniment. However, the key to its distinction is that the dancer's immediate concern is not with lifting weights, transporting himself/herself through water, balancing on skates or skiis, or winning a game. Rather, the dancer is concerned with movement that has been consciously given form and rhythmic structure to provide physical, emotional, or aesthetic satisfaction (Hays, 1984).

Each form of dance has distinctive objectives, but, considered generally, the dance forms accomplish a total development of the individual through increased:

1. awareness of rhythm, specific movement fundamentals, endurance, kinesthetic movement, and intensity of movement qualities;
2. opportunity for creativity, performance, expression, choreography, satisfaction, emotional release, step-by-step approach to teaching that allows mastering a skill at one's own level;
3. development of physical skills, mental alertness, confidence in one's own ability, good posture, prolonged concentration, appreciation of other cultural styles, aesthetic appreciation, and strengthened leadership qualities;
4. improvement in strength, flexibility, endurance, coordination, communication, and health;
5. pleasure in dancing with others, leading/following, sharing, security of group participation, individual opportunity for expression that adds greatly to student's ability to make an art of living itself;
6. awareness of the intimate relationships existing between dance and the temporal areas of music, poetry, drama, the space arts - painting, sculpturing and architectural design;

7. self-fulfillment because one has achieved the necessary skill to be master of body-and-soul in a temporary or final production of a particular form of dance either as individuals or as a contributing participant to the final production that gives immediate feedback;

8. versatility in adapting to all age groups, co-ed activity, inexpensive equipment, program and public relations activity that lends itself to mass instruction;

9. release and control of the tensions and anxieties from the stress of everyday living which produces greater relaxation.

Two different views of the aims of education by Doll (1982) lend further support for inclusion of dance into curricula.

VIEW 1

AIM ONE: TO DEVELOP LEARNERS INTELLECTUALLY

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Certain subjects "train the mind" better than other subjects.	All subjects are potential contributors to intellectual development.
The liberal arts and sciences have intrinsic worth in disciplining the mind and building intellectual power.	Content selected carefully from both the liberal arts and sciences and the practical arts can help in developing effectively functioning human beings.
Pupils in school "learn with their heads". The task of education is to "educate heads."	Pupils learn with their heads, their hearts, and their hands. Education of the "whole child" is the only valid kind of education.
Much desirable education is to be had by absorbing ready-made experience as reported by the written and the spoken word.	Experience that is really worthwhile involves acting, acquiring meaning, and solving live problems.
Education may be conceived of as instruction.	Education may be conceived of as creative self-learning.

AIM TWO: TO DEVELOP LEARNERS AS FUNCTIONING CITIZENS

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Intellectual development makes for good citizenship.	Development of good morals and useful skills is the key to preparing functioning citizens.
Knowledge and dicipline prepare pupils to exercise freedom.	Direct experience in democratic living prepare pupils to exercise freedom.

AIM THREE: TO DEVELOP AS INDIVIDUALS IN OUR SOCIETY

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Learners may profitability follow modes of learning that succeeded in the past within carefully prepared curricula.	Learners should be invited and expected to develop their own learning modes within a flexible curriculum.
Homogeneous grouping, tracking, and special grouping of pupils help to develop able learners to high levels of competence.	Practices that segregate learners on the basis of what may be false assumptions are undemocratic and un-American.
Individuals should be educated rigorously to accept their roles in society and to cooperate with others in performing common societal roles.	Individuals should be educated to nonconformity, individuality, creativeness, and development of their potential.

AIM FOUR: TO DEVELOP LEARNERS AS ACTUAL OR POTENTIAL WORKERS

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Learners who have acquired necessary knowledge and discipline in liberal studies may then profitably devote time to learning work skills.	Learners should develop abstractions and skills in both liberal and vocational studies. The vocational aspects of education should not be deferred or denigrated.

The Issue of Authority vs. Freedom

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Education involves direction, redirection, control, and restraint. Therefore, it should emphasize use of authority.	Real education involves experiencing freedom from imposed authority, with full opportunity to pursue one's interests and to develop one's own potential.

The Issue of Authority vs. Freedom (cont.)

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Inasmuch as some knowledge and attitudes are fixed and absolute, pupils may be indoctrinated safely and correctly with this knowledge and these attitudes.	Pupils should be free to pursue knowledge and develop attitudes on the basis of observable data and the tests they apply to their knowledge and attitudes.
Human beings should learn to accept and to manage the environments in which they find themselves.	Human beings should learn to modify the environments in which they find themselves.

The Uses of Subject Matter

Traditionalists	Progressivists
Values are fixed, absolute, and objective, inhering in the things being valued.	Values are relative, subjective, changeable, inhering in the circumstances in which they appear.
What is learned may be worthy because it is inherently good.	What is learned may be worthy because it is good for something.
Subject matter is important in itself.	Subject matter is important as a medium for teaching skills, intellectual processes, attitudes, and appreciations.
Because all people are basically the same, they should have basically the same curriculum.	Mainly, subject matter should be taught for immediate use.
	Because individuals differ markedly from each other, they require widely differentiated curricula.

In summary, these aims of education show the variety of educator views responsible for our children's directed path of study. Traditionalists believe a standard curriculum meets the needs of every child regardless of any other consideration. Moving with current issues of today's educational problems, the progressive viewpoint expresses the necessity of innovation in education, the uniqueness of each person, and the need to move toward making the world into an environment approaching ideal conditions.

Most of these differences, except the most pronounced ones, can be submerged temporarily in deference to the demands of the immediate task. Remember, a particular curriculum design is just one example of the many ways a program can be developed. Many of these aims presented by Doll have goals consistent with the necessity to include rhythm and dance in a curriculum.

Jewell and Bain (1985) note confusion about athletics, physical education, health, recreation, rhythm, dance, etc... and their places in a contemporary curriculum. There appears to be an assumption that development will automatically occur as a result of participation.

Evidence does exist to dispel old wives' tales indicating that one possesses either brains or brawn but that a person cannot possess both. Corbin (1969) underscores the relationship between ability to perform perceptual motor skills and classroom success. Where there is a deprivation in performance of motor skills, basics in early growth development such as, laterality, visual perceptive skills, and proprioceptive skills must be learned before a child is ready to read.

During the 1980's, a dominant trend has been the movement toward conservatism in the public schools. The problems of financing schools have caused numerous cutbacks, affecting school offerings. Changes in curriculum from one generation to another due to public pressure, have depended in part on the interests and concerns of individual groups within society. Today there is a need for bolder and broader programs based on more professional input. These must be planned for the youth of the twenty-first century to meet the total spectrum of their needs. Qualified leaders, in their respective educational fields should be consulted to help plan curricular offerings and interpret the academic goals and objectives for various age groups. Therefore, classes should be geared toward direct goals and taught at appropriate ability levels.

There is a need for basic rhythmic-type activities for elementary and secondary schools, and activities should be selected that help teachers and students reach expected objectives. When developing a curriculum, a good understanding of the urges that motivate children is necessary. Dauer and Pangrazi (1983) suggest the broad program areas be established to meet the drives and needs of the child.

VIEW II

ACTIVITIES	SUGGESTED YEARLY PERCENTAGES						
Kindergarten & Primary & Intermediate Grades	OF TIME FOR EACH GRADE						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Movement Experiences & Body Mechanics	40	35	35	22	9	9	9
Rhythmic Activities	30	25	25	22	18	18	18
Apparatus, Stunts, Tumbling	15	20	20	22	18	18	18
Simple Game Activities and Relays	15	20	20	17	17	12	10
Sports Skills and Activities				14	35	40	45
Administration and Testing				3	3	3	3
Fitness Routines and Activities	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Swimming and Water Safety	#	#	#	#	#	#	#

* A short period of time at beginning of each class usually devoted to fitness activities.

# Swimming and water safety is a recommended area of instruction for elementary school children. Emphasis on this area would depend upon the facilities and instruction available.

More and more emphasis is being placed on inquiry and creativity in the elementary programs. The needs of the individuals selfworth and completeness can be experienced through the mode of dance leading to creative accomplishments which earn the respect of their peers.

To further substantiate the need of rhythm and dance type activities in the secondary school curriculum the following data is advocated by Vannier and Fait (1957):

Suggested yearly percentages of of time for each grade

TYPE ACTIVITY	GRADES					
Junior and Senior High School Grades	7	8	9	10	11	12
Appartus	5	5	5	5	5	5
Aquatics	10	10	10	10	10	10
Body Mechanics	5	10	10	5	5	5
Dance (folk, modern, social and square)	20	20	20	20	25	30
Gymnastics	5	5	5	10	10	10
Individual and Dual Sports	10	10	15	20	25	30
Stunts and Tumbling	5	5	5	5	5	5
Team Sports	30	25	20	20	15	15
Track and Field	10	10	10	5	0	0
Totals	100	100	100	100	100	100

In the formulas by Vannier and Fait (1957) the secondary schools require the highest time allotment for dance activities. A high school senior who has not danced has missed a big portion of his/her social/educational development. In the above formula 30% of his/her activities should come through dance. The basic objectives carry over from the elementary level to secondary and even to college level. The college and university curricula depends to a large extent upon the interest of college-age youth. It is evident that if a college student has a sound and adequate dance background in the public schools, his/her adult program would be more apt to include dance. There is more to education than the gaining of information. Planners need to include research information in curriculum design that considers the emotional and social development of students.

According to Professor Carl F. Vaupel (1979), schools that seek to serve everyone play no favorites among the various disciplines. The task of determining essential learning is difficult but certainly not impossible. The biggest problem is that university professors in the various subject fields have little interest in helping to determine minimum curricular essentials for everyone. They prefer to find persuasive ways to justify their own subject area.

No one is arguing the fact that a basic knowledge of the three R's is necessary, but educators should recognize that other essential curricula do exist. Educators are often reluctant to change basic school requirements so that more individual choice of course offerings is possible. The major concerns of principals and superintendents over whether or not to include dance in the curriculum are obviously financial. There is also a lack of expertise among administrators. They know little about dance or its place in the potential total contributions dance could make to an educational program. Their experience has been acquired most likely under the influence of spirits on an overcrowded dance floor. I am not criticizing this lack in an administrator's education. But I am pointing out that dance is a multifaceted area that needs more review and consideration before being eliminated as a contributor to education. Curricular options should be regularly reviewed to meet the demands of the changing times we live in.

Gene Kelly (see Halsey & Record, 1982), was interviewed on quality education, including the arts. Gene replied,

> ...that he thought everyone should study the arts, especially when an art form is a career possibility for a student. I'm ashamed to say that I majored in Economics in college--I worked my way through by teaching dance. My family had a dance school in Pittsburg, but there wasn't the interest in fine

> arts that there is now. For example, a child doesn't have to become a Ginger Rogers, but dance lessons certainly can broaden a person's horizon...

College and university bulletins from the fifties offered few dance degrees. The major dance emphais then was found in areas of recreational dance: square, folk, modern, and ballroom. Let's compare these to the extensive dance offerings of today which not only include recreational forms, but also theatrical forms like ballet, jazz, tap, improvisation. Additionally, there is opportunity in production, accompaniment for dance, field experiences, teaching areas, and life time careers. Viewing the changing role of the dance curriculum in the universities of America illustrates the development of dance departments and extended program offerings that have developed from a few dance courses to curricula for Ph.D.'s. The college and university curriculum depends to a large extent upon needs and interests of preservice teachers.

A study of course offerings in current editions of several university catalogues produced the following relevant information:

1. Dance degrees offered - BA, BS, BSE, MA and Ph.D
2. Degree offerings handled through various departments - Physical Education, Drama, Theatre, Fine Arts, etc.
3. Curricular similarities that exist:
    a. Required enrollment in technique classes for each semester.
    b. Various dance degrees offer specific preference training - dance arts, dance therapy, studio management, choreography, etc.
4. Dance majors are encouraged to audition for performances.
5. Movement toward more classroom experience (practicum) for education degrees that lead to Teacher Certification. Presently eleven states require dance certification.
6. More colleges/universities are offering degrees in dance.

Today's dance curriculum continues to broaden the scope of offerings to include such areas as mime, sports biomechanics, lab notations, and independent studies. The public is more aware of dance today because of wide publicity given through the news media (television, movies, magazines, brochures) dance personalities, dance studios, traveling troupes, and fine arts councils. These communications assist in making students more aware of possible career choices in a field of study that offers personal satisfaction. The dance degree opens many career directions to teachers. These include education, performance, choregraphic production, and lab notation.

CONCLUSION

In order for the dance profession to assume its rightful place in the general studies curriculum of the future, one has to recognize the need for continuous changes. Changes affecting education and some of its programs are: population mobility; family life evolution, changing school roles, the increase of minorities entering the work force, communication machines and electronic schoolhouses, the constant change of financial support, the deterioration of human conduct, which creates problems in discipline and morals. The school, as an instrument of American society, should change from one generation to another, depending in part on the interests and concerns of individual groups within that society.

Curricula vary and change from provincially because of religious emphasis, economy, availability of resources, weather, etc. Even so, basic guidelines should be followed. We will never obtain the perfect curriculum for all times and purposes. Therefore, the writing of a curriculum should not be attempted as a complete new approach eliminating tried and proven programs, but one that has been researched and evaluated with an eye toward the present and the future.

In order for the dance profession to assume its rightful place in the educational curriculum of the future one has to recognize the need for continuous change. These changes must reflect the education of the whole child with rhythmic types of experiences available for all students. This requires curricular planning to cover such areas as: aesthetic experiences, significance of the arts in education, developed sensitivity as a creator of dance, implementing methodology for teaching, awareness of movement qualities, development of physical stamina, correlating the relationship of dance to the whol education curricula with its potential contributions to teacher preparation in non-public school settings and the certification of a public school dance educator. To evaluate the accountability of dance, I have included needs assessment, developed measurable priorities and established program goals and objectives, and identified specific instructional activity objectives for the inclusion of dance education.

As educators we are obligated to exercise faith in arts education, and support the status of dance in our community, let politicians hear our students' needs, promote the welfare of students through dance activity, sell the program to administrators, and be innovative in using available resources for dance instruction.

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COMPETENCY TESTING: HOW CAN TEACHER EDUCATION HELP?

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The motivation to write this paper came from recent legislation by the Arkansas law makers. This legislation mandated that all veteran teachers of the state take competency tests. The idea that competency examinations can bring about change in teacher education programs is explored and analyzed for factors that might lead to reform.

A search of the literature reveals that those not in education believe that competency tests are the answer for many of the ills that the general public associates with teachers and teaching. The focal point which serves as the nucleus of this paper grows from two questions: (1) How teacher educators might help inservice teachers prepare for taking competency tests and (2) Should teacher educators be concerned about helping preservice teachers to acquire skills which aid in standardized test taking.

How Can Teacher Educators Help Inservice Teachers Prepare For Arkansas Mandated Competency Tests?

The idea that examinations should be included as one aspect of teacher education programs can be found in the literature (Corrigan, 1982, p. 43), the AACTE publication, (A Call for Change in Teacher Education, p. 8), and others. According to Ishler (1985) competency testing is an idea that seems to appeal to everyone.

> Competency testing of prospective teachers seems to be taking the country by storm. It is being viewed both as a quality assurance measure for the general public and as a way of demonstrating that teaching is indeed a profession, since other professions already require the successful completion of an examination prior to entry. (Ishler, 1985, p. 27)

Competency testing may become, if it is not already, a part of admission criteria to teacher education programs. Denham (1985).

> A recent loss of confidence in universities as providers of well-educated graduates often coupled with a suspicion that university teacher training programs are neither rigorous nor effective has led about half of the 50 states to require state competency tests for the credentialing of teachers. States have the authority to set teaching credential standards. That state policy-makers have chosen to exercise this authority by means of competency examinations, easily the most popular of state teacher education reform measures, may be due to the appealing simplicity of the notion that selection by examination ensures teacher quality. It may also be an attempt to fill a perceived void left by the failure of universities to become leaders in the educational reform movement, or, at least to make known their efforts at reform (Denham, 1985, p. 41).

Sandefur (1985) writes:

> The movement to test teachers grew out of an earlier movement to test the competency of elementary and secondary students. If students' test scores fell appreciably below the public's expectation, and they did, then it was understandable that the public could believe that some part of the problem could be traced to teaching and teachers... state legislatures and state departments... mandated that teachers should be tested to assure their competency and, hopefully, assure their safe practice with clients. (Sandefur, 1985, p. 1)

These three writers imply that if teacher educators are to: (1) recruit a better quality student into their program; (2) gain assurance from the general public that teaching is a profession; (3) regain the public's confidence that colleges and universities can provide well educated graduates; (4) quell the suspicion that university teacher training is not rigorous or effective enough; (5) convince the public that those in teacher education can and will take the lead in ways to improve educational reform; and (6) assure the nation that there are teachers and teaching techniques that can bring about meaningful and useful learning to our youth, then competency testing is a reasonable beginning.

The AACTE (1985), in its publication, A Call for Change in Teacher Education, lists as its first recommendation (p.8), that there are three points at which prospective teachers should be assessed. The first assessment would look for above average collegiate-level scholarship, good critical-thinking skills, and competency in the communication skills of speaking, writing, and listening before admission of the student. The second assessment would evaluate the student's mastery of subject matter to be taught and his/her pedagogical foundation before approval for student teaching. The third assessment, occurring before graduation, would test the candidate's knowledge of the subject to be taught, and knowledge of foundations in the teaching process. All of these evaluations would use paper and pencil tests as one the assessment tools.

All teacher educators would probably agree that a comprehensive and meaningful evaluation requires more than competency tests. We do, however, suggest (as the AACTE has) that competency examinations are an idea accepted by many as a way to improve education. According to Garrett (1985, p. 108), one way to discover how much a student knows about a subject or a process is to administer a competency test. If teacher educators intend to utilize the findings of the AACTE and implement their recommendations, competency testing is going to be a major tool to evaluate preservice teachers.

Then, teacher educators can begin to build confidence in the public's opinion of their ability to produce well educated graduates. Teachers and administrators from schools of education, whose primary responsibility it is to add teaching skills to a student's repetoire of academic skills, find it hard to confince the general public and some of their own colleagues from other schools or colleges within the university what their real responsibility is. Ways must be found to assure colleagues of the real value of teacher preparation. At the same time, teacher educators may need to find innovative ways to remedy inadequacies in the basic academic training of inservice teachers.

Colleges of education should provide a "test readiness" program for veteran teachers which might include diagnostic measures for identifying those areas in which the teachers are weak. Workshops could be constructed to strengthen those weak areas. Such action would indicate that there are persons in our colleges and universities willing to take the lead in educational reform. The interaction in structuring these activities would build a positive working relationship between the local educational association and the college or university. This interaction should lead to very strong ties between the classroom teachers and the higher education teacher education personnel.

According to Christopher Connell of the Jonesboro (Arkansas) Sun, (Saturday, July 13, 1985, p. 12), Arkansas is the first state in the nation to test veteran teachers. This gives teacher educators in Arkansas an opportunity to dig in and find creative ways to assist and develop strategies that will help the inservice teachers who failed during the first round of testing. A one-hundred percent passage of the test the second time would increase the credibility of teachers in that state and those who train them as well.

Connelly and deHart (1985) offered some guidelines for helping both preservice and inservice teachers:

> In order to help remove the threat factor from state mandated competency tests, the following actions might be considered by colleges and universities with teacher education programs. (1) Use diagnostic tests to identify high risk students who are unlikely to pass the competency tests, (2) Provide a Test Readiness Program for those students who may need assistance in acquiring skills needed to pass the competency test, (3) Provide a career counseling program to suggest alternative careers for those students who are unable to pass the state mandated competency tests, (4) Urge school districts to use and publicize performance criteria, not only test scores, when evaluating teachers for promotion and salary increase, (5) Make use of Teacher Centers, which foster cooperation among institutions of higher education and school districts, to encourage research and to devise programs that will help prospective teachers meet state competency test requirements.

All of these can be initiated at minimum costs and with little additional research. When and where possible test readiness workshops should be provided must be determined for freshment. This could be a recruiting as well as a screening process function. Swezey (1981) tells us that "the use of a criterion-referenced measurement model to provide the tool for performance assessment is here." Teacher competency tests provide education with that tool. Other professions instruct their potential graduates to pass competency tests. Should not teacher educators do the same? The answer is an obvious yes...Let's get on with the task.

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FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE FOR USE IN CURRICULA CHANGE DECISIONS FOR PRESERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

By

Ray Gibson

School of the Ozarks

The following questionnaire is designed to serve as a tool for the follow-up of graduates with the purpose of influencing curricular changes which will better meet the needs of teacher education graduates. It will also serve as documentation of follow-up efforts and their results to meet NCATE accreditation standards. This instrument is designed specifically to solicit input from public school administrators. It could be adapted for use by graduates as a self-evaluation tool.

However, it is suggested that separate instruments be designed to solicit input from the graduates themselves. Specific course and/or competency items should be included in this part of the overall follow-up procedure since it deals with actual inservice assessments.

SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Follow-Up Survey of Graduates:
To Be Completed by Public School Principals and/or Other Administrators

Directions: Please indicate the degree of preparation of our teacher education graduates currently under contract in your school district in each of the areas listed below. Use the following scale.

A. Very Adequate

B. Adequate

C. Inadequate

D. Insufficient Information/No Comment

I. Elementary and Elementary/Special Education Majors Only:

Number of Contract Teachers who are School of the Ozarks Graduates ______

________1. Art

________2. Health

________3. Language Arts

________4. Mathematics

________5. Music

________6. Physical Education

________7. Reading

________8. Science

________9. Social Studies

II. Secondary Teachers Only:

Number of Contract Teachers who are School of the Ozarks Graduates ______

Major Field(s) Represented: __________, __________, __________,

____

For the remainder of the items, please use the
4-point scale cited above

________10. Depth of preparation in subject matter

________11. Breadth of preparation in subject matter

________12. Preparation in instructional methods

III. Both Elementary and Secondary Teachers: N = ________________

________13. Understands developmental level of students

________14. Classroom management

________15. Student motivation

________16. Creates stimulating learning environment

________17. Develops student study skills

________18. Uses variety of teaching methods

________19. Diagnoses learning difficulties

________20. Effective with mainstreamed children

________21. Evaluation and grading practices

________22. Record keeping skills

________23. Instructional strategies

________24. Adequate planning for instruction

________25. Adequate discussion skills

________26. Use of audiovisual materials and equipment

________27. Teaching to individual differences

________28. Understands multicultural differences

________29. Meets multicultural needs of children

________30. Communication skills (oral and written)

________31. Leadership in pupil-centered activities

________32. Understands the role of the public school

________33. Knowledge of subject matter

________34. Enthusiasm for teaching; loves to teach

________35. Relationship with students

________36. Relationship with faculty members

________37. Relationship with administrators

________38. Relationship with parents

________39. Relationship with professional organizations

IV. Listed Below are Possible Strengths and Weaknesses of a Teacher Preparation Program. Indicate Those Strengths and Weaknesses You Feel Would Apply To The School of the Ozarks Program. (Use the letter A, B, or C)

A. Strength of Program

B. Adequate

C. Weakness of Program

________40. Field/Clinical experience

________41. Quality of instruction

________42. Student-faculty relationships

________43. Development of classroom management skills

________44. Development of knowledge about various roles of the teacher

________45. Theoretical foundations

________46. Practical application of theories

________47. Involvement in the teaching profession

________48. Use of resource materials

________49. College - school relationships

________50. Cooperative attitude when working with fellow teachers

V. Rate the overall quality of preparation of the School of the Ozarks Graduates on your faculty compared with those from other institutions.

Circle your choice:

A. Very Adequate Preparation

B. Adequate Preparation

C. Inadequate Preparation

VI. List program strengths which you think are outstanding:

VII. List program weaknesses which you think need attention:

VIII. Specific suggestions: (Include specific needs in your school district that we might address:

The above evaluation was
completed by:

____
Name and Title

____
Date

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PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION: WHAT IS THE CURRENT CURRICULUM?

by

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The stage has been set for concerted change in the area of Teacher preparation. The reports have been made and studied by educators, politicians, and John Q. Public. Professional journals are filled with admonitions and suggestions concerning the processes and outcomes of teacher education. Given the magnitude of criticism, redesign of teacher education curriculum seems certain. What can be done to assure that the "new" accomplishes more than the "old"? What is the state of research on teacher education, and what additional data are likely to be helpful in assisting institutions of higher education in their redesign attempts? What is current curriculum in teacher education?

In an attempt to address the latter questions, two members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education have proposed a nation-wide survey of teacher education institutions. The rationale for the survey grows from the premise that there must be an accurate description of the current status of professional preparation programs if informal redesign is to occur. The description must be based on carefully analyzed data which reflects actual practice on a nation-wide basis.

Prior to redesigning teacher education curriculum it seems reasonable that a systematic effort should be made to determine current curriculum content and to provide data on which to base decisions to retain or dismiss any or all current practices in teacher preparation. There are many significant questions for which data might be provided. Among them are:

1. Is there a series of courses and experiences common to teacher education programs which form an unwritten standard curriculum?

2. Has, in fact, teacher education curriculum failed to respond to demands for excellence in professional practice as identified in Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher? (AACTE, 1983)

3. Is it possible to identify factors which have an impact upon teacher education programs, i.e., accreditation status, size of program, breadth of program, level of offerings?

Keohler (1985) found 233 ERIC entries under "research on preservice teacher education" during the past four years. Of those, she considered 220 could be broadly defined as research on teacher education. A large category of studies labeled course/program/method evaluation was identified. She did not, however, identify existing studies such as the one proposed here.

Using the teacher education program conceptualization presented in Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher (1983), the survey instrument will attempt to secure specific information concerning the four program components outlined as well as pertinent demographic data. Respondents will be asked to provide information concerning whether the institution is public or private, total enrollment and teacher education enrollment, level and range of programs offered, and accreditation status. It will be important also to determine the status of state initiatives at restructuring certification patterns and teacher education program approval procedures. The data will be examined to determine if there are differences in teacher education curriculum based on the demographic variables listed.

Separate sections of the survey instrument will focus on program components in each of four areas: general education, preprofessional studies, academic specialization and professional studies. Definitions, taken from the monograph (AACTE, 1983), will be provided for each of the components in an attempt to clarify the content of each component.

In the area of general education, the total number of credit hours required for each program will be determined. The survey instrument also will ask for the makeup of each program's general education component given to each of three areas: humanities, social and behavioral sciences, and mathematics and natural sciences.

The preprofessional component seems to be found most often in elementary education programs. This component focuses on studies which provide a theoretical base in the social and behavioral sciences. These disciplines provide the foundation for understanding schools and for developing skills which will assist in teaching. The survey will attempt to determine if the preprofessional component, as defined, is found in teacher education programs across certification areas. The researchers also will seek to determine if successful completion of the component is required prior to formal admission to a teacher education program.

Academic specialization, the in-depth study of curriculum areas the prospective teacher will teach, will be examined to determine the number of hours required for the specialization, and what proportion of the total program is dedicated to such study. Additional information will be sought concerning differences, if any, between state and institutional requirements. The controversial issue of requiring an academic specialization for elementary education majors will be addressed, also.

The professional studies component and its four sub-parts will be analyzed. For each of the sub-parts, foundational studies, generic teaching knowledge and skills, specialized pedagogical knowledge, and field and clinical laboratory experiences, the survey instrument will ask how many hours are required, what courses are included, and how they are distributed within the program. In the case of field and clinical laboratory experiences, the survey will provide information concerning the duration, sequencing, and credit hours.

This survey will be followed by a second phase which will seek to analyze the actual content of courses within teacher education programs. Such an analysis will provide insights into such issues as the extent to which the research/knowledge base for teaching and learning is being incorporated into preservice programs and the balance of academic and pedagogical content within programs.

Koehler (1985) calls for " . . . careful description of program, method and classroom processes and their effects on students before attempting to significantly alter existing practice" (p. 28). The proposed study will provide a foundation upon which to build effective teacher education curriculum to prepare teachers for the twenty-first century.

REFERENCES

Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher. (1983) American Association of Colleges for Teacher Educating, Washington, D.C.

Koehler, V. (1985) Research on preservice teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 1, 23-25.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. ______________________________
Name of Institution

2. ______________________________
Person Completing Form, Title

3. ___ Public Assisted
___ Privately Supported

4. At your institution what academic units are used?
___ Semester or ___ Quarter

5. How many hours of credit are required to achieve a BS in teacher education?
Total number of hours _____

6. How many hours of credit are required to achieve a BS in a Liberal Arts Discipline?
Total number of hours _____

7. Degrees Offered:

In Education	In Total Institution
___ BA/BS	___ BA/BS
___ MA/MEd/MS	___ MA/MEd/MS
___ EdS/CAS	___ EdS/CAS
___ PhD/EdD	___ PhD/EdD

8. Accreditation Status

___ yes	___ no	State Approved (teacher ed. programs)
___ yes	___ no	Regional Accreditation
___ yes	___ no	NCATE Accreditation

9. Number of Graduates
Sept 1984 - Aug 1985

	Degree Levels			
Program Areas	B	M	Sp	D
Early Childhood Education				
Elementary Teachers				
Secondary Teachers (including junior high)				
K-12 Teachers				
Educational Communications and Information Technologies				
Reading				
School Principals				
Counselors				
Psychologists				
Superintendents				

PROGRAM STABILITY

10. _____ year In what year did your institution last engage in a major change in the design of the teacher education programs? Briefly describe major elements of this change(s):

____
____
____
____
____

11. _____ Yes
_____ No
Are you presently engaged in or planning for a major redesign of your pre-service teacher education curricula?

12. _____ Yes
_____ No
Is your state department of public instruction undergoing major changes in certification requirements or in the bases used to accredit your teacher education programs?

PROGRAM CONTENT

____
Name of Institution

General Education

This component fosters understanding of society, the world and the prospective teachers themselves. The courses are usually taught by the arts, letters, and science faculty, and they serve as a lifelong tool to solve problems, think critically, and comprehend past, present, and future events.

13. Please indicate number of credit hours required for each teaching area degree:

	Teaching Area				
	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle	Secondary	K-12 Specialties
Humanities					
Social & Behavioral Sciences					
Math and Sciences					
Total Hours					

14. Within the General Education component, how well do you think each of the following areas is addressed? Circle the appropriate choice for each program level:

a. well b. moderately c. unsatisfactorily d. not at all

	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle	Secondary	K-12 Specialties
Communication Skills	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Importance of Groups & Institutions	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Relationship of Society & Work	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Relationship of Nature and the Universe	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Relationship of New Technologies to Human Nature	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Relationship of Time & Civilization	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Values and Beliefs	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Fine Arts	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d
Principles of Physical and Mental Health	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d	a c b d

Name of Institution

Preprofessional Studies

This component includes subjects that provide a theoretical base and related skills in the social and behavioral sciences. These courses extend and amplify the introductory experiences that teacher candidates share with all other college students in the general education component.

15. Circle yes or no in each of the categories.

	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle	Secondary	K-12 Specialties
Is there a program component designated as "Preprofessionals"?	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no
Does it fit this definition?	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no
Must students demonstrate competencies/success in this area before being admitted to the teacher preparation program?	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no	yes no

What courses are included in the Preprofessional Component for each certification program? Please list by area:

Early Childhood

Elementary Education

Junior High/Middle

Secondary

K-12 Specialties

____
Name of Institution

Academic Specialization

This component is the in-depth study of subjects which a teacher candidate may teach in an elementary or secondary school.

16. Please provide the following information in the appropriate places.

	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle	Secondary	K-12 Specialties
How many hours are required to complete a teaching specialty at your institution?	____ credit hours	____ credit hours	____ credit hours	____ credit hours	____ credit hours
What percentage of total degree requirements does this represent?	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %
Is this equivalent to an academic major? academic minor?	___ yes ___ no ___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no ___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no ___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no ___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no ___ yes ___ no
Do your degree requirements mandate that every teacher education candidate must have completed an "academic" major other than professional education?	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no

Areas of Teaching Specialization

17. To further delineate the various requirements in academic content areas, please provide the following information about program make-up.

	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle
Number of hours required in each content area:			
Art			
Music			
Physical Education			
Health			
Mathematics			
Life Science			
Physical Science			
Social Studies			
Literature			
Composition			
Must every student complete additional courses in one or more of the above content areas to meet graduation requirements?	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no	___ yes ___ no
If yes, how many hours are required to complete such content specialization?	________	________	________

Explain any unique programs or special requirements on back of this sheet, please.

____
Name of Institution

Professional Studies

This is the pedagogical component of the teacher preparation program and is comprised of foundational studies in education, generic teaching knowledge and skills, specialized pedagogical knowledge and skills, and field and clinical experiences.

18. Please provide the following information in the appropriate places.

Distribution	Early Childhood	Elem. Education	Jr Hi Middle	Secondary	K-12 Specialties
How many credit hours of professional study (courses and lab assignments) are required for program completion?	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
What percentage of the total degree requirements does this represent?	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %
How many hours are required in: Foundational Studies (Phil/Soc/Hist/Econ Policy Studies)	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
(Learning/Human Growth)	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
Generic Teaching Knowledge and Skills	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
Specialized Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
Laboratory Experiences Field and Clinical	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours	____ hours
(Percentage conducted in the field)	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %
(Percentage conducted on campus)	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %	____ %
During which year(s) are students required to engage in laboratory experiences?	Fr Jr Soph Sr	Fr Jr Soph Sr	Fr Jr Sp Sr	Fr Jr Soph Sr	Fr Jr Soph Sr

SELECTED PROBLEMS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

By

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INTRODUCTION

Early childhood education is often considered the "new kid on the block" in the context of American educational history. However, if the nurturing of children is considered a form of education, a perusal of the growth of America will indicate that early childhood education holds a unique position in the building of our country. An interesting phenomenon in the history of early childhood education is the parallelism that exists between societal problems and the response of early childhood education in meeting the needs of children during periods of crisis. For example, during the period of massive immigration from Europe to America in the late nineteenth century, children were crammed into tenament houses. left alone for long periods while their parents sought employment, and suffered from poor nutritional habits because of the lack of money to provide an adequate diet. In response to these needs of children, a movement was begun to make available child care in settlement houses for the purpose of providing safe and healthy environments in depressed neighborhoods. Children spent their days involved in active participation in group activities and were fed and clothed adequately as a part of the program.

During the Great Depression, the plight of children again initiated a response for organized aid from the field of early childhood. The Works Progress Administration (WPA) established a network of more than 1,700 nursery schools which served about 75,000 children (Joffe: 1977, p. 4). The purpose of the WPA project was two fold: (1) to provide safe, nurturing activity-filled environments for young children and (2) to engage unemployed adults in meaningful work. When women became "Rosy the Riveters" during World War II, early childhood education emerged from a hiatus which focused on providing play centers for middle class children to a very necessary organization of child care centers, established for the purpose of caring for the children of female defense workers. The Lanham Act provided the funds for the establishment of the World War II child care centers. In both the WPA facilities and the Lanham funded projects, it is important to note that the federal government supported educationally defined services for young children (Joffe: 1977, p. 11).

The era of social reform frequently referred to as the "Great Society" precipitated a major change in the focus of early childhood education. Until the inception of Head Start in 1965, early childhood education's foundations were in the areas of providing custodial, nurturing, safe environments with opportunities for cognitive experiences occurring incidentally and spontaneously. The purpose of Head Start was to provide an intervention program to overcome the deficiencies of children from culturally deprived environments through a combination of planned educational, medical, and nutritional strategies (Joffe: 1977, p. 14).

> "The association of Head Start with educationally defined services has had tremendous implications for the professional development of early childhood education. It brought a huge new clientele and program base to a profession that was formerly restricted to serving the middle class in mostly private nursery schools, and it stimulated an enormous amount of research activity in child development."

The establishment of Head Start programs created a dichotomy in early childhood education that stuff exists in this decade. There are those who feel that preschool education should focus on assisting the child to make social adjustments, to learn to become independent, and to participate in creative activities in a relaxed pressure-free environment. In opposition to this philosophy, are the champions of the structured curriculum in which children are involved in organized programs whose focus is on skill development, practice and memorization. Of course there are many programs whose curricula rests somewhere along the continuum of structure versus spontaneity.

The decades of the seventies and eighties have precipitated another type of social pressure that impacts heavily on the field of early childhood education. This type of pressure emphasizes changing family structures and value systems. The most obvious social change is the increase in the number of women in the work force either by choice or by economic necessity. The Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that 46 percent of the mothers with children under three are in the work force. The Congressional Budget Office estimates that by the beginning of the next decade a majority of women will be employed, including more than 50% of those with children under the age of six (Gordon: 1985, p. 382). The pressure for organized, quality, flexible early childhood facilities has become both intense and immediate in the past decade.

A change in parental aspirations for their children is impacting on the programs in early childhood. The post World War II baby boom children have now become parents themselves. This generation appears to have tremendous drive for upward mobility for both themselves and their children. Educational goals demanded by these parents for their children appear to be "more, better, sooner, and more intense." Infants and toddlers are being bombarded with swimming lessons, alphabet flash cards, and cram courses for the entrance examinations into educational facilities who advertise their facilities as the first step in preparation for assured entrance into League schools. The focus of child development is now more directed toward the testable physical and cognitive areas of childhood education for these children.

Problems in Early Childhood Education

Each era of increased need for care and education of the young child has had its own set of specific problems and issues that relate to the social tenor of the period. Early childhood education in the 1980's and 1990's can not escape its share of problems that arise from changes in the needs, concerns, and pressures of society. The increased demand for a variety of types of early childhood facilities ranging from sporadically formed play groups to twenty-four hour, cognitively-oriented day care centers has brought with it a specific set of problems to be examined, studied and remedied if possible. The problem areas are many. Those selected to be discussed in this report will be limited to: 1. definitions in early childhood education, 2. personnel problems in operating early childhood education centers, and 3. the professionalization of the fold of early childhood education.

Definitions

The diversity in early childhood education in types of teachers and scope of agencies has caused great confusion. When the term elementary teacher is used, the image of a male or female teaching in grades 1 through 6 quickly comes into focus. However, in the area of early childhood there is such diversification in programming and personnel that misnomers create confusion and misunderstanding. A global definition for early childhood education provided by Peters states: (Peters: 1985, p. 4)

> "Early childhood education is a programmatic effort in which an agent, operating within a context uses some means, according to some plan, to bring about changes in behavior of children between birth and 8 (years) in terms of some definable criteria."

This definition is typical of the imprecise type of rhetoric that surrounds early childhood education. The National Association for the Education of Young Children N.A.E.Y.C. realizing the complex roles and levels of early childhood personnel, has produced a position paper on nomenclature. The four levels of the professional path proposed by the N.A.E.Y.C. are paraphrased as follows: (Young Children: Nov, 1984, p. 24)

Level 1 - Early Childhood Teacher Assistant - This step is considered a preprofessional, entry level position. It requires working under the direct supervision of a professional staff member. The basic educational requirement for entry at Level 1 is a high school diploma or its equivalent.

Level 2 - Early Childhood Associate Teacher - At this level, the associate teacher may work independently with a group of children without the supervision of another teacher. There are two tracks by which a person can reach the level of Early Childhood Associate Teacher - an associate degree in early childhood education or a Child Development (CDA) associate credential. The CDA credential was originally focused on a competency based assessment system. The student collects materials in specific areas of child development which are samples of work he/she has completed with children. The candidate is observed by a representative from the Child Development Associate Consortium. Following the successful completion of other assessment techniques, the decision is made to award the credential for a period of three years. By 1980, 6000 candidates had been credentialed through this process (Spodek: 1982, p. 409).

Level 3 - Early Childhood Teacher - This level is similar to the Early Childhood Associate Teacher in relation to responsibilities and functions. The title variation is based on patterns of formal education (a baccalaureate degree in Early Childhood or Child Development) and background of experience in child development.

Level 4 - Early Childhood Specialist - Persons at this level are considered to be professionals, directors, or master teachers. These specialists must exhibit expertise in the areas of personnel training, curriculum design, management and administration. Qualifications for attainment of this level include demonstrated competencies of Level 1, 2, and 3 activities, a baccalaureate degree in Early Childhood or Child Development, three years of successful full-time teaching experience and/or an advanced degree.

A second area where definition of the field is hampered by a proliferation of terminology is in the titling of various early childhood programs. A sampling of program names are nursery school, day nursery, day care, preschool education, play schools, early childhood education and many more. Some of the names are self explanatory; however, there appear to be subtle implications of quality implied in the nomenclature. The public often identifies the term day care/child care as custodial and perhaps lacking in quality. The title early childhood education implies to the general public cognitive developmental programs that are very different from day care centers. In the present melieu of child facilities, this is a false assumption. The major differences are focused on the durating of services which are offered rather than quality of programs (Caldwell: 1985, p. 367).

> Professional organizations could aid in eliminating the confusion of definitions by providing consistency of nomenclature in all their publications and by developing a planned public relations campaign through their state and local chapters for the purpose of standardizing vocabulary.

Personnel Problems

"The nature of teaching in the early years is unlike that of other age groups" (Gordon: 1985, p. 103). Both the professional and the paraprofessional encounter difficulties that are unique to the developmental level of the children with whom they work. Specific problem areas to be discussed in this report will include stress, financial inconsistencies, and liability concerns within the context of early childhood education.

Every level of teaching has its share of stress-producing factors. The environment, clientele, and curriculum of early childhood education lead to pressures and concerns that produce specific tensions for teachers. Stress has been defined as an imbalance between demands and resources (Hyson: 1982, p. 25) This state of imbalance permeates the atmosphere of early childhood facilities. Uncertainty and novelty abound in the classrooms of young children. Unpredictability is an obvious characteristic of the young. Interests, emotions, and physical activity can change within a few minutes causing teacher planning to flounder and be disgarded. The flexible nature of a curriculum which encourages creativity and exploration is vulnerable to the whims and interests of the young child. The relative freedom and absence of a pre-packaged curriculum while exciting and energy-producing, make early childhood educators "uncertain about just what they are supposed to be doing and how they will know if they are doing it well" (Hyson: 1982, p. 27). This situation can produce stress and anxiety on the part of the teacher.

Another source of stress is the lack of "get away" time. Early childhood teachers need to have time to prepare, to relate to other professionals, and to have a relaxation period (Feeney: 1983, p. 335). The intensity of the work load and the lack of additional funds often makes "get away" time merely a figment of the teacher's imagination.

Teachers of young children are plagued with the insecurities of the work place. Since many facilities are not supported by state and federal funding, budget cuts are often dependent on the population of the clientele which can change quickly resulting in immediate salary and supply decreases. "Program planners repeatedly find their ideals punctuated by the sharp edge of economic reality" (Hyson: 1982, p. 25). Legal aspects, job descriptions, and organizational procedures are not as sophisticated or carefully developed in preschool education as in the public sector of education. Poorly defined policies concerning probationary requirements, sick leaves, grievance procedures and disciplinary processes are characteristic of the prekindergarten job scene. This state of vagueness leads to stress and insecurity (Johnston: 1984, p. 33).

Feelings of separation and loss as children leave the facility at the end of the year are often more intense for the early childhood educator. The relationship between the young child and the teacher is often one to one, very personal, and all encompassing. The role of surrogate parent tends to focus strong attachment bonds which are difficult and depressing for the teacher to break as the child moves on to join a new group.

Working effectively with subordinate staff causes great concern for prekindergarten teachers. The lead teacher is responsible for recruiting, developing, directing, evaluating, and providing feedback to these staff members, in addition to her own teaching responsibilities. Again the stress producing imbalance between demands and resources results in stress producing situations.

Encouraging and receiving cooperation from parents is a universal stress-producing problem for elementary and secondary teacher educators. The quantity and type of parent-teacher contact increase the magnitude of the problem for prekindergarten teachers. The parent-teacher relationship focuses on sensitive issues such as meeting requirements in relation to toilet-training, paying fees, following enrollment procedures, and the care of a sick child (Johnston: 1984, p. 36). The personal nature of these concerns has the potential for volatile interaction.

A comprehensive list of frequent and bothersome problems for the prekindergarten teacher was provided by John M. Johnston (Johnston: 1984, p. 34).

> Getting parents to keep their children at home when they are sick
>
> Spending personal time doing necessary classroom or administrative tasks
>
> Understanding the public attitude that daycare or preschool is just babysitting
>
> Finding time away from children for planning or preparation
>
> Getting children to use words and not hit when they are angry
>
> Finding effective substitute staff
>
> Being able to stay home when I am sick
>
> Keeping some children's behavior from affecting other children
>
> Meeting an individual child's needs without neglecting the group
>
> Getting parents to come to scheduled events or conferences
>
> Finding time for cleaning and non-teaching tasks

Since it appears obvious that stress permeates the lives of all early childhood teachers, what are some methods of coping or making adaptive responses to stressful situations? One strategy that can lead to easing of tension is to be informed. Even if unpredictability is rampant in the early childhood situation, it is important to know as much as possible about the general developmental characteristics of the age level. Observational records of children that aid in determining specific patterns of development that may evolve over a longer period can produce some meaningful information.

A sense of personal independence and control over situations is an important stress-relieving characteristic. Autonomy can be gained through assertive action and taking advantage of options available. A sense of ownership concerning curriculum and schedule can lead to more predictable outcomes within the classroom. Each educator must develop his/her own style of coping techniques. It is important to find personal activities which will reduce stress and maintain inner equilibrium. Many educational practioners are seeking inner balance through exercise, yoga, or participation in formal and informal support groups (Hyson: 1982, p. 31). Meaningful survival in the classroom can be dependent on the effectiveness of the teacher's coping skills. Curricula in early childhood teacher education courses should include units on stress-reducing techniques, relationships with colleagues and parents, and ramifications of deep psychological attachments to children.

Finances and Benefits

A tragic irony exists between the public attitude of the worth of children and the value which is placed on the people hired to care and nurture children. There appear to be "contradictions between the intrinsic value of caring for children and the extrinsic payoffs for those who do it" (Pettygrove, Whitebrook and Weir: 1984, p. 19). Surveys indicate that while child care workers enjoy their work, they are very unhapy about working conditions and compensations. A comparison of salary increases for women caregivers between 1975 and 1982 indicates that the buying power of child care providers has decreased. These women are living on the edge of poverty (Pettygrove, Whitebrook, and Weir: 1984, p. 16). The N.A.E.Y.C. has issued a position paper stating that salaries in the field of early childhood should be on a par with other professional groups with comparable training and responsibilities (Young Children: 1984, p. 55). A 1977 comparison study indicated that non-degree day care workers averaged $6,885 per year for a 50 week work year. Bus drivers, ($18,000), powertruck operators ($14,000), and secretaries ($11,000) are paid at a level much higher than prekindergarten practioners (Ade: 1982, p. 29).

Fringe benefits appear to be very minimal. For example, only 8.2% of child care workers in Illinois receive maternity leaves - a very important statistic when it is recognized that the majority of the workers are in their childbearing years (Pettygrove, Whitebrook, and Weir: 1984, p. 16). The N.A.E.Y.C.'s position paper focusing on benefits for the early childhood states (N.A.E.Y.C. Young Children, 1984, p. 55)

> All professional and pre-professional and staff working full time should receive the following benefits, in addition to mandatory Social Security and workmen's compensation benefits. All professional and proprofessional staff should receive the following benefits on a prorated basis: (1) health benefits (medical coverage) offered by the employer, and paid or paid by the employee. (2) regular

> breaks during the workday, paid time for preparation and for work with parents, (3) staff development opportunities, (4) vacation time, sick leave, and personal/professional days should be available for full-time employees or a schedule that increases with length of time employed. The employer is encouraged to also offer additional employee benefits: (1) child care, (2) additional retirement plan, (3) life insurance.

Methods to relieve the inadequacy of compensation appear weak and shallow in relation to the magnitude of the problem. A unity and organization of purpose should be a first step. Affiliation with the N.A.E.Y.C. and other professional organizations could provide much needed support for salary-increase projects. Presently only aobut 40,000 people are members of the N.A.E.Y.C. out of an estimated pool of several hundred thousand (Pettygrove, Whitebrook, and Weir: 1984, p. 19). Awareness campaigns focusing on the disproportionate inequities in salary and benefits could prove helpful. Increased fees for quality care or government subsidies could provide relief in specific socio-economic areas where it is feasible. The inequity of compensation is a problem of major scope when observed against the backdays of increasing need for quality personnel and facilites and the rate of high turnover and burnout among child care people.

Professionalism

To be or not to be, that is the question! Numerous criteria to attain the status of professionalism are present in the literature. Each source identifies the characteristics of a profession in a slightly different way. Following are some examples and analysis from recent publications.

Carole E. Joffe (1977, pp. 132-140) discusses professionalism from the viewpoint of a sociologist as he presents four criteria for professionalization. The first requirement, notes Joffe, is securing the commitment of an adequate clientele. Both medicine and law have a firm understanding concerning the people they are serving. Joffe contends that the clientele of early childhood is made up of two groups, the middle class members who were a part of the old nursery school format and the lower class who are now being served through newer intervention programs such as Head Start.

> By arguing for the commitments of both new and old client groups, early childhood educators are essentially walking a tightrope. They are, on the one hand, claiming to be a legitimate - if not

> crucial - part of the compensatory movement; at the same time, they are placing themselves at a distance from it, saying that their programs are designed for a universal audience . . . the degree remains . . . that in some situations early childhood will be increasingly absorbed by and identified with, the larger compensatory education establishment (Joffe: 1977, p. 134-135).

In walking the "tightrope" between these two populations, early childhood education will need to provide cognitively oriented curricula as well as increased flexible day care for a greater number of hours during the day.

The second criterion is the creation of a body of knowledge. Up to this point the knowledge base has appeared to be too broad and too familiar to the general public. As Joffe states "it simply sounds too much like glorified babysitting for the public to see such services in the realm of bona fide professionals (Joffe: 1977, p. 136).

The third criterion - socialization of personnel calls for cognitively oriented practices to be put in place in the classroom. For many early childhood educators, the emphasis on more organized programming is very difficult to accept.

The fourth and final characteristic of a profession is the securing of an organizational base which would include regulation of new members into the profession. Because of the great diversity of programs and the variety of degrees and credentials, the development of an organizational base appears to be a monumental obstacle (Joffe: 1977, p. 140). Upon analysis of the sociologist's four criteria, it would seem that the case for professionalism is "not to be" in the near future.

An A.A.C.T.E. publication (Howsan, Corrigan, Denemark, Nash, 1976) discussing the teaching profession in general provides another set of criteria for establishing professionalism. The list includes:

1. providing essential services to society
2. concerned with an identified area of need
3. possesses a body of knowledge not possessed by nonprofessionals
4. involved in decision making for the client
5. based on one or more undergrading disciplines
6. a professional organization which has control of the conditions of the profession
7. performance standards for admission

8. a protracted period of preparation and induction
9. high level of public trust
10. strong service motivation and commitment to competence by practioners
11. accountable to the profession and to the client
12. relative freedom from on-the-job supervision

After stating the characteristics of a profession, Howsan and his colleagues indicate that teaching falls in the area of a semiprofession (Howsan, Corrigan, Denemark, Nash: 1976, p. 13). If elementary and secondary teachers are characterized as semiprofessionals, early childhood educators would be considered at an even lower level of professionalism because of a limited social acceptance, less income and less required preparation (Spodek: 1982, p. 402).

If early childhood education is ever to become a profession, many barriers must be overcome. A national division exists between the early childhood educators in grades kindergarten to third grade as compared to prekindergarten teachers in terms of levels of preparation, admission into the field, pay scales, and an acknowledged body of knowledge. The prekindergarten personnel will have a much more difficult time achieving a level of professionalism than will K through 3 teachers.

Another difficult criterion for prekindergarten teachers to achieve focuses on the statements that a profession posseses a body of knowledge not possessed by nonprofessionals. The persisting opinion of the general public is that everyone has knowledge about children because everyone has been a child at one time and in addition most people have basic knowledge through parenting. Therefore; early childhood educators do not have any more special knowledge than the man on the street.

Summary

In conclusion, it is apparent that the area of prekindergarten education must make many substantial changes to reach the level of professionalism (Ade: 1982, p. 32). As futurists look toward the twenty-first century, it should be noted that early childhood education has tremendous potential for growth based on societal needs. It will be important for leaders of early childhood education to guide the field toward a level of professionalism in a less stressful environment which provides adequate financial support for its personnel.

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A MODEST PROPOSAL FOR IOWA TEACHER EVALUATION OF BEGINNING CLASSROOM TEACHERS

by

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This proposal reviews some of the important research findings on teacher evaluation. Implementation procedures for various teacher evaluation systems are analyzed. Finally, several recommendations, suggested strategies, and essential conditions for effective teacher evaluation are stated for Iowa school districts to consider.

Motivation for Proposal

Political Background

Both the Department of Public Instruction and the Iowa State Legislature have proposed process revisions in the general certification framework with target dates for implementation ranging from 1986 to 1989. The DPI and the State Board of Instruction have recommended these major changes in certification:

-elimination of the current three-level certification structure (certificate-endorsement-approval)

-replacement with a two-level system: certificate issued for less years than the present ten-year period and endorsements which cover both grade levels and subject areas

-establishment of a career ladder concept in certification structure
    Provisional Certificate (valid for 2 years)
    Educational Career Certificate (valid for 5 years)
    Professional Teacher Certificate (valid for 5 years)
    Master Teacher Certificate (valid for 7 years)

-no further issuance of the permanent professional certificate (Life Certificate) after a specific future date.

A series of informational meetings to obtain public and educator input were held throughout the state during the spring of 1985. Expected State Board action is due in the fall of 1985.

Concurrently the Iowa State Legislature has begun to consider several bills along the same lines as those above with many additional controversial features. Among these bills was House File 450, March, 1985. This bill proposed the establishment of a new Board of Educational Examiners consisting of seven members appointed by the State Board of Public Instruction, subject to Senate confirmation. The new Board would perform duties (fourteen listed in bill) such as the establishment of a certification structure for school employees, approval and disapproval of teacher education programs at colleges and universities, issuance of certificates, prescription of requirements for the evaluation of holders of provisional certificates, and minimum standards for the plan of support and evaluation of provisional certificate holders.

Under its proposed duties the Board would establish a two-year pilot project for applicants for provisional certificates in order to obtain baseline data on Iowa teacher education graduates. Also, the Board would adopt nationally normed examinations that measure basic skills, the knowledge base of professional education, and academic subject matter knowledge in the applicants' teaching area. In addition, the Board would establish an assistance and evaluation team of three members (school administrator, master teacher, and third member selected by the team) for each holder of a provisional certificate. This evaluation team would have power to meet with the provisional certificate holder and design a plan of support and evaluation, eventually recommending to the Board of Examiners the issuance or denial of an Educational Career Certificate by the end of the second year of teaching.

House File 450 did not pass the Senate, but it apparently has strong support. The bill will most likely be resubmitted in the fall of 1985.

All of the above background provides professional teacher educators strong motivation to speak out on needs and concerns related to teacher certification, especially teacher evaluation. The proposed evaluation teams noted above should require teacher educators to reflect carefully upon the functioning of such teams in any school district.

Proposed Problem

What would an effective teacher evaluation system or systems incorporate by way of critical conditions, helpful evaluation strategies, and useful implementation guidelines to assist Iowa school districts in their employment of provisional certificate holders? This proposal attempts to address that problem.

What is Teacher Evaluation?

A simplistic, general answer might state that teacher evaluation is the act of judging teacher effectiveness for some specific purpose or purposes (Millman, J., 1981).

But we should ask immediately questions such as what assumptions are made about teaching and about effectiveness? Who is or should be evaluating whom? Which purposes are appropriate? By what means will we evaluate? Thus it is evident the term, teacher evaluation, can be broad, narrow, simple, complex, and/or controversial. It is more likely a series of actions rather than one act.

Evidently a teacher evaluation system must define the teaching task and must provide a mechanism for evaluating the teacher. One's assumptions about teaching will influence your definition of the teaching task. Is teaching a labor, a craft, a profession, or an art? Each view carries assumptions that influence the selection of different techniques for an evaluation system.

Ways of Viewing Teaching

Viewing teaching strictly as labor, the teacher is responsible for implementing the instructional program in a manner prescribed by administrative leadership. The teacher must adhere to the specified routines and procedures of the school or district. As Mitchell and Kerchner (1983, p. 35) explain, teaching activities are "rationally planned, programmatically organized, and routinized in the form of standard operating procedures" by administrators. Thus the techniques are to inspect the teacher's lesson plans, classroom performance, and student achievements. There is the assumption that effective practices can be concretely determined, specified, and checked for results much like a job foreman. The school administrator is the teacher's foreman.

Viewing teaching as a craft, teaching involves a repertoire of techniques and knowledge of generalized rules for application of those techniques. Thus the techniques are to determine if the teacher has the requisite skills for teaching and are to hold teachers to specified general performance standards. The school principal is a manager. (Mitchell and Kerchner, 1983)

Viewing teaching as a profession, teaching includes both specialized skills and techniques but also the exercise of professional judgment about when to apply the techniques. (Shavelson and Stern, 1981) Broudy (1956) indicates that a teacher as the craftsman would provide a standard diagnosis of learning problems and perform some procedures to attempt correction, but the professional would appraise possible corrective actions and evaluate their effects as they are applied. The professional takes full responsibility for the total learning situation. Evaluation techniques are developed by one's peers and teaching is judged on the degree to which learning problems have been resolved competently. The school administrator is viewed as a resources provider and coordinator and is especially capable in judging all aspects of professional knowledge and practices.

Viewing teaching as an art, teaching is a process that calls for intuition, creativity, improvisation and highly individualistic style and application (Gage, 1978). The teacher not only uses standard techniques, diagnoses, and professional knowledge but also employs unique personal resources to fit individual and collective interactions with students. Since the teaching environment is ever changing and unpredictable, the teacher must depend on insight and personal experiences. Evaluation techniques for teaching as an art demand judgments on holistic qualities. Such evaluation tries to assess patterns. (Gage, 1978) The school administrator encourages and supports the teacher while the teacher must use self-assessment and peer assessment for evaluation.

Thus one's assumptions and views of teaching influence the primary evaluative techniques advocated in a system. Researchers can be quoted to support any of the four views of evaluation and related evaluative approaches.

Basic Purposes of Teacher Evaluation

As assumptions about teaching influence selection of evaluative techniques and system construction, so should the purposes of evaluation. Too many present evaluation systems are mediocre or ineffectual because they attempt to accomplish multiple purposes with limited methods or with one set of instruments. Wise et al (1984) portray schematically the basic purposes of teacher evaluation.

Figure One

Basic Purposes of Teacher Evaluation

Purpose → Level ↓	Improvement	Accountability
Individual Teacher	Individual Staff Development	Personnel Decisions (hiring, firing)
Organizational	School Improvement	School Status Decisions

Teacher evaluation demands different standards of evidence and different methods for each of the purposes identified in Figure 1. Obviously, for the individual teacher, purposes of improvement and accountability hold degrees of conflict and opposing motivations.

When personnel decisions are needed (i.e., accountability) the teacher evaluation processes must yield objective, standardized, externally defensible data about teaching performance. For purposes of improvement, teacher evaluation processes must yield information about sources of difficulty and ways to change effectively.

Important Conditions Related to Each Purpose

If you want the individual teacher to improve, you must convince that teacher that a particular course of action is correct, and you must motivate that teacher to act with the belief that a given action or actions will produce worthwhile change. In other words, personal power and self-efficacy of the teacher must be influenced (Wise et al, 1987). Fenstermacher and Berliner (1983) define staff development as having various aspects or scales: compliance, remediation, enrichment of individuals or groups.

If you want to deal with school improvement or with school status (accountability of an organizational unit), important conditions multiply rapidly. Such factors as school or district goals, school policies and procedures, intergroup relations, value choices, and local institutional context have importance and must be assessed in the overall evaluation system devised.

Comments on Research Findings on Teacher Evaluation

Much of the evaluation literature relates to individual instruments or a specific technique without connection or reference to any particular foundational theory or any explanation of the organizational context of the school or school district. Thus, let us examine some selected research findings related to teaching environment, effective teaching behaviors, and the organizational context of evaluation systems.

Role of the Teaching Environment

If you insist on viewing teaching as a profession or an art, then the role of the teaching environment increases greatly in importance. The teaching environment influences and often can determine teacher behaviors in many situations. Teaching effectiveness cannot be judged accurately nor fairly without consideration of this factor. Too much research assumes a context free situation. This is impractible and unrealistic in the proper construction of a teacher evaluation system.

Educational research is working diligently toward creating a science of teaching techniques and effective teacher behaviors, but, as Gage (1978) emphasizes, using science to achieve practical goals, handle unpredictable situations, and apply effective behaviors is what distinguishes good teaching from poor or mediocre teaching. Teaching as a clinical profession has developed rapidly from recent research studies (B.O. Smith, 1984). The clinical aspects of teaching need careful consideration now in the construction of any teacher evaluation system.

Effective Teaching Behaviors

Researchers have found that effective teaching behaviors vary for students of different socioeconomic, mental, and psychological characteristics (Brophy and Evertson, 1974). Also, effective teaching behaviors vary for different grade levels and subject areas (McDonald and Elias, 1976). Soar and Soar (1976) found that instructional acts that seem to increase achievement on basic skills tests and factual examinations differ distinctly from instructional acts that seem to increase complex cognitive learning, problem-solving, and creativity. Thus like Wise et al (1984), this writer interprets these findings as suggesting that effective teaching is not a single unidimensional construct but a multidimensional construct with effective behaviors related to specific goals of the teacher at the time.

Thus, the design of an effective teacher evaluation system or systems will depend upon educational goals and upon assessment of the more complex teaching acts involving teacher judgment.

Staff Development vs Accountability

In the design of any teacher evaluation system, there exists much potential for conflict between evaluation for staff development and evaluation for personnel decisions. Later, in this paper under implementation strategies and under sample examples of evaluation systems, these problems will be expanded. Generally, it is thought best to try to keep evaluation design, methods, and instruments separate for the two purposes of staff improvement and accountability.

Changing Teaching Behavior

Too many teacher evaluation processes identify effective teaching behaviors without addressing the question of how to change teaching behavior. You cannot assume that once a teacher has discovered or has been told what ought to be done, the teacher will know how to accomplish the change and will actually do it.

Since you cannot create effective change by imposition of rules of behavior, you must guide a teacher's change through a transformation of the teacher's belief structures and knowledge (Fenstermacher, 1978). This change of a teacher's thoughts, beliefs, judgments, and decisions is helped greatly if the teacher attains a sense of efficacy. This sense affects performance by generating coping behavior, self-regulation of refractory behavior, preserverance, responses to failure, and growth of intrinsic interest and motivation (Bandura, 1982).

A responsible environment with rewards for performance improvement will help promote self-efficacy. Fuller et al (1982) states that individual efficacy can be promoted within the context of organizations by

-convincing or influencing teacher perceptions that the evaluation is soundly based

-lowering prescriptiveness of certain work tasks

-developing higher levels of personalized interaction between teachers and administrators

-utilizing teacher input on evaluation criteria

-matching goals and means of performance between administrators and teachers

Thus both self-assessment by the teacher and teacher input into the determination of evaluation standards will assist greatly in changing teaching behavior. Bandura (1982, p. 134) summarizes that

> In social learning theory an important cognitively based source of motivation operates through the intervening processes of goal setting and self-evaluative reactions. This form of self-motivation, which involves internal comparison processes, requires personal standards against which to evaluate performance.

Teacher Evaluation in Organizational Context

In the next major section of this paper, implemenation of teacher evaluation systems is discussed. But it should be emphasized that teacher evaluation success is dependent greatly upon numerous external factors and forces found in any organization. The climate, the types of incentives, the structure of the organization, the political processes practiced, the expertise of organizational leadership, and the style of leadership are some of the major factors and forces influencing the effectiveness of teacher evaluation.

Mutual respect of all parties at each level of the organization must be maintained or evaluation policy is unlikely to be implemented, and teacher evaluation is not accomplished. Thus internal factors are as important as external ones in any teacher evaluation system.

V. Implementation Procedures for Teacher Evaluation Systems

Let us now review the state of teacher evaluation in a number of typical school districts and describe the implementation procedures generally utilized.

As the previous sections of this paper have noted, especially the comments on research findings, the effective teacher evaluation system must meet competing individual teacher needs and organizational needs. School districts must strive for flexibility and responsiveness in their teacher evaluation and balance these traits with proper standardization and central control for the district goals in evaluation. The reader may wish to try to assess the information on districts below for this balance. Section VI will make such a formal analysis for you.

Survey of Practices

Wise et al. (1984) of the Rand Corporation has conducted an exploratory assessment of thirty-two "reputedly" well-developed teacher evaluation systems. The results are reported generally in the sub-sections below. In section VI, an in-depth study of four outstanding districts from the thirty-two will be reported. The same Rand research team conducted this series of case studies (Wise et al. 1984).

In the thirty-two local educational agencies (LEAs) surveyed by Rand there was a mixture of rural and suburban districts, medium and large cities. Minority enrollment ranged from one percent to seventy-five percent in the thirty-two districts. Chapter One eligible students varied from less than one percent to over forty percent. District wealth varied from $1,400 per pupil expenditure to over $3,000 per pupil. (Wise et al., 1984)

The common features of the thirty-two school systems were as follows:

-teaching force-mature-fourteen years service average

-declining enrollment faced in twenty-nine of the thirty-two districts

-all districts faced moderate to severe financial retrenchment

- most districts had been forced to dismiss teachers

- teachers organized in thirty of the thirty-two districts

- collective bargaining agreements in twenty-five districts

- twenty districts had teacher evaluation agreements specified in the collective bargaining agreement

- evaluation agreements were all focused on procedural rather than goal or issue topics (Wise *et al.*, 1984).

Program Characteristics of Thirty-Two Surveyed Districts

District practices were very similar to broad outline. In all thirty-two districts a teacher evaluation system was in place. In a majority of districts evaluation activities were proclaimed a serious concern of the LEA administrators and boards. Previous evaluation systems had been primarily narrative and descriptive only. Previous systems had been criticized as too subjective, inconsistent, and inefficient. Teachers in most districts were advocating a revised and more standardized evaluation effort than the past independent, building narrative form of principals (Wise *et al.*, 1984).

Since most states vary widely in the extent and details of their evaluation mandate to local districts, the districts had responded mainly to these state guidelines. In short, state mandates were the major factor in the initiation and development of local teacher evaluation efforts (Wise *et al*., 1984).

Most districts had failed to use any outside consultant assistance in the development of their teacher evaluation systems. Most districts had failed to use any outside consultant assistance in the development of their teacher evaluation systems. Most districts had taken six months to a year to develop their system with committees of teachers, administrators, union representatives, and four broad goals mentioned earlier: personnel decisions (accountability), staff development, school improvement, and accountability for school or district status (Wise *et al.*, 1984).

When asked to identify the *major* purpose of their teacher evaluation system, only twelve districts stated staff or school improvement; six emphasized accountability (district standards); and two dealt with personnel decisions. Twenty-nine of the thirty-two district administrators had considerable difficulty in specifying the primary goal of their teacher evaluation system. They asserted instead that the system was servicing all four major goals simultaneously (Wise et al., 1984).

Criteria on Instruments of Surveyed Districts

Nearly all thirty-two districts used similar criteria or categories of teacher competency. These five broad criteria were found:

-teaching procedures

-classroom management

-knowledge of subject matter

-personal characteristics

-professional responsibility

In twenty-eight of the thirty-two districts, the evaluation process had been formalized to these steps:

1. Pre-evaluation Conference
    a. teacher and administrator clarify goals
    b. evaluation process explained to teacher
2. Classroom Observation
    a. evaluator (usually principal) makes visit
3. Post-Evaluation Conference
    a. findings discussed
    b. reactions noted
    c. 28 districts had signing of a written agreement on a plan of action based on findings
    d. 26 districts specified formal follow-up steps for this written agreement

Twenty districts did not use teacher self-evaluation. Twenty-four districts did not use peer teacher review. Only one district had established teacher competencies in their instruments. Of the seven districts that considered student achievement scores, all claimed that the scores were used to indicate program problems and not to assess teacher performance (Wise et al., 1984).

In conclusion, considering program similarities, thirty of the thirty-two districts provided financial support from general administrative funds. It was not a line item in district budgets. Most saw teacher evaluation as a part of an administrator's job and thus did nt require special funding! Some administrators interviewed replied that their teacher evaluation system "doesn't cost anything." Responding districts implicated that principals were responsible for "comprehensively" evaluating approximately fifteen to twenty teachers each year (Wise et al., 1984)!

Differences in Evaluation Programs of Surveyed Districts

Only three of the districts provided no training for their evaluators. However, the level of training provided ranged from low and infrequent to high and intensive. At the high end, training was given evaluators on a yearly basis. Number of evaluations required from evaluators by districts ranged from once a year to a high of twice a month during the first year of teaching. For tenured teachers, the number ranged from once a year to once every three or four years (Wise et al., 1984).

Throughout the districts, LEAs did not incorporate curriculum guides into teacher evaluation. These same districts generally were unlikely to view teacher evaluation as a way to direct instructional services or practices. Districts that did incorporate curriculum guides in evaluation used their goals as well as part of the information from the evaluation process. Only five districts claimed that teacher evaluation had no influence on staff development activities (Wise et al., 1984).

The results of teacher evaluation were seldom used in the planning and design of district in-service education activities. Any relationships between teacher evaluation and staff development were generally temorary and incidental for most districts. There was a general lack of integration among these aspects: staff development, curriculum guides, and teacher evaluation (Wise et al., 1984)

Typically administrators were evaluated yearly on a narrative basis. Their evaluation did not approach the same instrumental level as teachers. Wise et al (1984, p. 21) concluded that "LEAs do not agree on what constitutes the best practice with regard to instrumentation, frequency of evaluation, the role of the teacher in the process, or how the information could or should inform other district activities." In brief, these differences indicate that teacher evaluation in most districts is in a poor state of implementation.

Major Problems of Teacher Evaluation

All of the above thirty-two school districts faced similar major problems. Principals apparently lack strong resolve to evaluate and do not demonstrate effective competence in the evaluation process. Principals cited role conflict as the reason for this. Principals also viewed evaluation as a very time-consuming task and a kind of work overload beyond their standard duties (Wise et al., 1984).

A second major problem was teacher resistance to evaluation and/or teacher apathy toward their duties. In less than half of the thirty-two districts did teachers fully support the type of evaluation system presently in effect. Teachers believe that principal judgments are inconsistent. This related to the third major problem in implementation (Wise _et al.,_ 1984).

Evaluators (mainly principals) have inadequate training in teacher evaluation. This condition relates to the first problem - lack of resolve and competence. The survey indicates that few districts had any evaluator training and almost all of the districts had not instituted any quality training program for evaluators of teacher effectiveness.

A fourth major problem area was the evaluation of secondary school staff and specialists. The principal generally is viewed as not possessing the needed background to evaluate specific academic areas outside of his/her own major. The need for evaluation expertise related to the elementary level, individual secondary subject areas, and specialist areas that must be addressed in an effective evaluation system (Wise _et al.,_ 1984).

Another major problem indicated in previous survey data was that a single evaluation system or single instrument was being utilized to address all four major purposes of teacher evaluation. This leads to inevitable problems. It is unrealistic to expect one or a very few approaches to serve all these purposes of evaluation.

Wise _et al_ (1984) concluded by identifying four dilemmas that must be considered in the improvement of district teacher evaluation:

-the divisions of authority and responsibility among teachers, principals, and central office administrators in the design and implementation of the teacher evaluation process.

-the degree of centralization and standardization of the management process

-the distinctions between the formal process and the actual process as implemented

-the extent to which the process balances control and autonomy, commonality, and flexibility (Wise _et al_, 1984).

Outstanding teacher evaluation systems of four districts are analyzed in the next section to show some ways to resolve the above dilemmas.

Critical Questions on Implementation

Four critical implementation factors that must be considered in any effective teacher evaluation system are:

1. Organizational Commitment:

   Does the district provide top-level leadership and institutional resources for the evaluation process?

2. Evaluator Competence:

   Does the district ensure that evaluators have the necessary expertise to perform their tasks?

3. Collaboration:

   Is there administrator-teacher collaboration to develop a common understanding of evaluation goals and processes?

4. Strategic Compatibility:

   Are the district support systems and the evaluation process compatible with each other and with the overall district goals and organizational context (Wise *et al*, 1984)?

These questions emphasize that implementation procedures are as important as form and instruments in a teacher evaluation system.

Evaluating Teacher Evaluation Systems

What should you examine to evaluate the quality of a district teacher evaluation system? The researchers of the Rand Corporation cite three critical factors: reliability, validity, and utility.

Reliability

What is it? Reliability deals with the question of does a process or system do what it is supposed to do. Reliability refers to the extent to which measures give consistent results. This measurement error is the concern of reliability. In teacher evaluation reliability will be concerned with consistency of measurements across evaluators in the system and observations (instruments used) of the system.

The degree of reliability required of a teacher evaluation system is related to the uses to be made of the evaluations. The highest degree of reliability is asked of evaluation results that are used for personnel decisions. A lower degree of reliability may be accepted for informational uses or for individual and staff improvement.

Sources of variability that make teacher evaluation unreliable are (1) variability in how evaluators interpret observations or criteria, (2) variability in evaluations of a single evaluator, (3) variability in the observations themselves (whether the evaluator uses the same criteria and applies them in the same manner for the same teacher on separate occasions.)

Validity

What is it? Validity refers to how well does a process or system meet its stated objectives. Validity deals with the appropriateness of an instrument for the measurement objectives. In a teacher evaluation system, validity depends on its accuracy and completeness in the judgment of teaching quality as defined by agreed-upon criteria by the users. The criteria, the process of collecting data, and the competence of the evaluator all contribute to the validity of an evaluation process. In other words, the process must fit the purpose if the results are to be considered valid.

To evaluate minimum competence in teaching, the evaluator must be able to observe the presence or absence of generic teaching skills. Generic teaching skills involve those skills that import classroom management, knowledge of subject matter, teacher responsibility, and general teaching procedures. However, to evaluate degrees of competence above minimum teaching competence, the evaluator must be equal to or exceed the level of expertise of the teacher being evaluated. Thus, what the evaluation process is seeking to measure and what it actually measures depends on who is being evaluated, by whom, and for what purpose. An evaluation process valid for one purpose applied to another purpose or goal may not be valid.

Utility

What does utility have to do with teacher evaluation systems? The utility or usefulness of a particular teacher evaluation system depends not only on its reliability and validity but also upon its cost. An evaluation system too expensive to operate is of little value even with high reliability and validity.

There are several types of costs influencing the utility of a teacher evaluation system. Wise et al (1984) lists three types of costs; they are logistic, financial, and political. Logistic costs refer to the procedural demands made on the system in gathering the evaluation data. If the process is too cumbersome or too time consuming, then its logistic cost is too high, and utility will be reduced.

Financial costs refer to the dollar amount of resources that must be devoted to the evaluation process to produce acceptable benefits. If the financial costs are too high over long time periods, the utility will be questioned. The evaluation process must be cost effective financially to allow for high utility.

Political costs refer to acceptance or rejection by those who control the power in a district and to those who are controlled by the process. If teacher morale is reduced drastically by the process, then its political cost is too high, and the utility is low. If the use of the results of an evaluation process leads to political struggles that wreck organizational function, then that political cost obviously is too high and the utility is much too low for use of that evaluation system.

In conclusion, utility exists in an evaluation system when there is a proper balance between logistic, financial, and political costs and the kinds of benefits derived from the evaluation system. One hopes for such system benefits as quality data for decision-making, better communication between parties in the evaluation system, teacher improvement, and attainment of specified goals.

> In summary, the utility of a teacher evaluation system depends on how well and how fairly it measures what it seeks to measure, whether the school system can and will tolerate its logistic and financial costs, and whether it functions so as to be acceptable to the relevant political forces. The utility of a given approach changes as the politics, context and purposes of evaluation change. (Wise et al, 1984)

Some Effective Teacher Evaluation Systems

The Rand research group performed in depth case studies of four school districts that exhibited good levels of reliability, validity, and utility in their teacher evaluation systems. These four districts are contrasted in Figure 2 for these qualities as well as to their implementation procedures.

FIGURE TWO

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FOUR EFFECTIVE TEACHER EVALUATION SYSTEMS *

Quality / District Name	Salt Lake City Utah	Lake Washington Washington State	Greenwich Connecticut	Toledo Ohio
RELIABILITY	- team approach - no instruments nore checklists - non-standardized remediation - low reliability	- evaluator training increases reliability - evaluative checklist criteria - over use of principal time lowers reliability	- no checklist - guidelines for prof. performance - low reliability	- small number of - common criteria - frequent observations - strong system wide application of criteria
VALIDITY	- consensus of committee - evaluator judgments documented - multiple observers	- strong validity - training helps evaluators - common criteria	- evaluates degrees of competence - not suited for differentiated staff selection	- strong validity - teacher experts - standards of practice - multiple observations
UTILITY	- fairly high utility	- fairly high utility	- medium	- high utility
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	- shared governance - accountability major purpose - open disclosure policy - review of serviced process - remediation teams-40 teacher specialists	- staff development goal - Madeline Hunter's ITIP model - 5 trainers with released time	- individual improvement, major goal - self-evaluation report - teacher leaders and released time	- personnel decisions, major goal and individual growth - centers on 1st year teacher - intern review board - released time-teachers Consultants

FIGURE TWO (Page Two)

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FOUR EFFECTIVE TEACHER EVALUATION SYSTEMS *

District Name / Quality	Salt Lake City Utah	Lake Washington Washington State	Greenwich Connecticut	Toledo Ohio
EVALUATOR COMPETENCE	- shared-principals and teachers - peer advisor program-expert teachers	- principals - ITIP trainers - Training Workshops	- principals evaluated - 66 teacher experts - training workshops	- teacher consultants help first year teachers
COLLABORATION	- remediation process - teacher assn. developed teaching expectancies - teachers responsible for curriculum development	- supertendent meets with assn. president regularly - teachers participated in plan creation	- teachers set own goals with principal - teachers developed process	- principal and union bldg. committee jointly decide on teacher intervention - teacher representatives on all committees
STRATEGIC COMPATIBILITY	- management by remediation - system wide goals - consensual decision making - decentralization and personalized evaluation	- annual goals by board - need assessments - performance standards for all staff positions	- performance goal approach - self-improvement by personal goals - some conflict between central administration management by goals and self-improvement plan	- prominent role of teachers in the intern and intervention programs

* Data from Rand Corp Study - Wise et al, 1984, pp. 27-39 and pp. 44-46

FIGURE TWO EXPLANATORY NOTE

KEY:

Reliability - consistency of the measurements across evaluators and across observations in the system

Validity - accuracy and completeness in the judgments upon teaching quality as defined by agreed-upon criteria by the users

Utility - the cost-benefits ratio and general usefulness of the system to the district

Organizational Commitment - does the district provide top-level leadership and institutional resources for the evaluation process?

Evaluator Competence - does the district ensure that evaluators have the necessary expertise to perform their task?

Collaboration - is there administrator-teacher collaboration to develop a common understanding of evaluation goals and processes?

Strategic Compatibility - are the district support systems and the evaluation process compatible with each other and with the overall district goals and organizational context?

The reader is urged to consult in detail the case studies report, entitled Case Studies for Teacher Evaluation: A Study of Effective Practices, for explanations of the many ratings found in Figure 2 (Wise et al, 1984). The comments on organizational structure and commitment, evaluator competence, collaboration, and compatibility of the evaluation system in each of the four districts are highly informative and a good documentary on how changes can be effected.

The benefits of studying the analysis and contrasts of these four districts will now be used by the writer to recommend some final guidelines for the improvement of teacher evaluation systems in the state of Iowa.

Proposed Teacher Evaluation Strategies for Iowa School Districts

Numerous models and/or structures for effective teacher evaluation appear to be possible and acceptable. The brief analysis of Figure 2 previously illustrates four very different evaluation systems with adequate reliability, validity, and utility.

However, there are some broad recommendations that any school district would be wise to attend to in revision of their teacher evaluation system.

Key Recommendations

Wise et al (1984) provide five broad conclusions in the Rand Study:

A. To succeed, a teacher evaluation system must suit the educational goals, management style, conception of teaching, and community values of the school district.

B. Top-level commitment to and resources for evaluation outweigh checklists and procedures.

C. The school district must decide the main purpose of its teacher evaluation system and then match the process to that purpose.

D. To sustain resource commitments and political support, teacher evaluation must be seen to have utility. Utility depends on the efficient use of resources to achieve reliability, validity, and cost-effectiveness.

E. Teacher involvement and responsibility improve the quality of teacher evaluation (Wise et al, 1984).

Proposed Teacher Evaluation System Conditions:

The writer would add to the above five general recommendations these necessary conditions as evidenced in the school districts analyzed in Figure 2 leading to an effective teacher evaluation system:

1. Adequate time for both evaluators and for administrator-teacher committees to construct, implement, and operate any evaluation system. This implies a need for added staff.

2. Released time for teacher experts who would necessarily be part of the evaluator teams in any system. This implies a need for substitute teachers.

3. States should not impose highly detailed, restrictive or prescriptive teacher evaluation requirements on school districts. Reasons? See the five major recommendations listed previously (A, B, C, D, E).

4. Principals assigned evaluator duties must in turn be evaluated as to the competency with which they carry out those evaluation duties. More than a narrative method is needed.

5. Evaluators must be given initial and periodic training in observation skills, evaluation techniques, diagnosis and clinical supervision, and communication skills.

6. An evaluation process can realistically serve only one major purpose well. The same process cannot serve two or three purposes. (Recommendation C). If master teachers are to be selected or if merit pay is to be implemented, different, separate evaluation processes are needed for each of these purposes.

7. An evaluation system and its processes must be flexible. Without this, teachers will not be encouraged to change or develop. The selected criteria should be broad enough for the selected purpose, and the instrument scales should have satisfactory ranges to them.

8. A teacher evaluation system is always used in some context. What is that context? The evaluation process must identify that specific context. Administrators cannot expect to compare or rank teachers from evaluation data derived in the context of personalized advice

or professional growth if they wish to use the data in the context of personnel decisions.

9. The provisional or probationary teacher must be judged by standardized criteria or indicators. Multiple samples of the teacher's behavior must be used.… greater than three. A generalistic evaluator may perform the process.

10. The professional teacher must be judged by context-specific criteria with a balance between breadth and depth in the selected criteria. Multiple samples within the same context must be taken. A teacher expert (master teacher) must be the evaluator. A generalist evaluator is unacceptable. Distinguishing between high degrees of teacher competence requires multiple criteria expertly applied and evaluated.

11. A teacher evaluation system must have mechanisms for communicating its expectations to teachers and administrators.

12. The utility of a teacher evaluation system must be addressed on a continuous basis. Costs versus benefits must be in reasonable balance. Problems and needs of the district must be identified and resource allocation reviewed periodically.

13. The ratio of evaluators to teachers must be maintained so that work overload does not result for evaluators.

14. The local education association must be formally and informally involved in the operation and review of an effective evaluation system. Association representatives should be on key committees and units connected with the evaluation system.

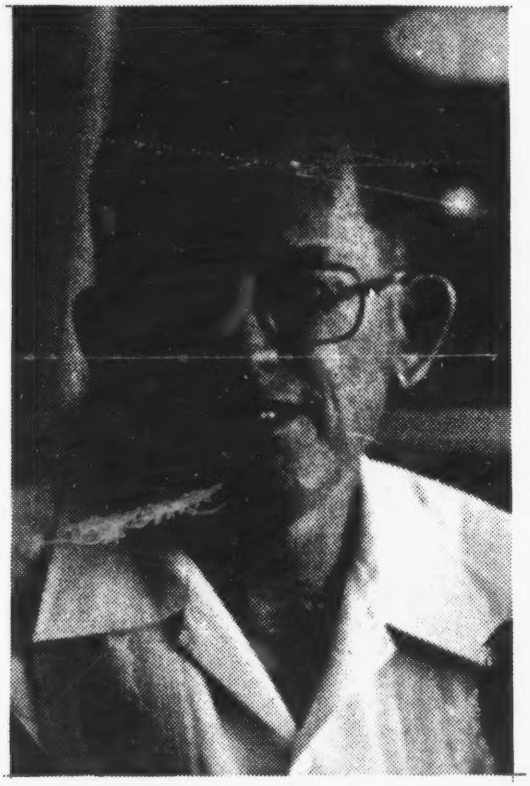
15. Peer review or teacher experts must be part of the evaluator teams in an effective teacher evaluation system. Credibility, due process, and fairness must be maintained continually in any system.

16. The most effective teacher evaluation system has moved its philosophical basis from hierarchial decision-making to a negotiated responsibility of the collective profession. The adversarial approach must be replaced with the participatory approach in teacher education.

Conscientious application of the above conditions and guidelines will produce an effective teacher evaluation system.

The specific listing or inclusion of sample evaluation instruments in this paper was avoided. The criteria of these instruments are all very similar. Following the above guidelines, the school district should determine first its goals and purposes as well as implementation procedures for the establishment of any evaluation system. Evaluation criteria will flow from these original decisions. School districts certainly may employ outside consultation in the establishment of their teacher evaluation system and in the construction of evaluation instruments.

The teaching profession and Iowa's children will benefit from sincere efforts to implement forms of effective teacher evaluation systems in its school districts.



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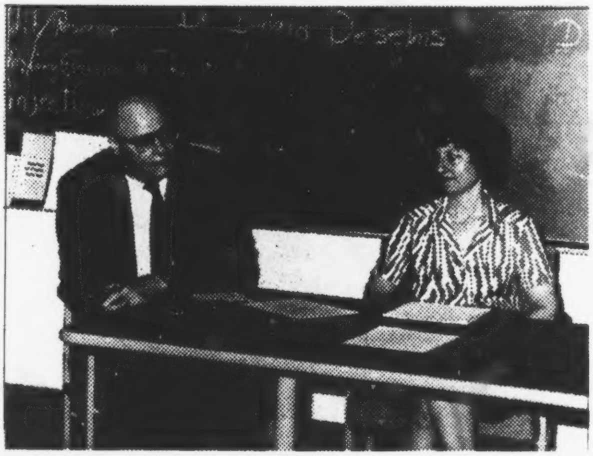

ENHANCING INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCE IN SMALL COLLEGES

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A selective review of professional development research literature and programs in higher education reveals worthwhile professional development strategies for small colleges. This review indicated that instructional improvement is the most promising place for a small college to begin professional development. Six recommendations are made: (1) start with focused, explicit, and practical goals; (2) use evaluation constructively; (3) consistently reward instruction; (4) develop support teams and services; (5) provide professionalizing models; and (6) combine instructional evaluation with consultation.

This paper selectively reviews and analyzes professional development (PD) literature in higher education.

The analyses were based on teaching experience at Chadron State College (Chadron, NE), a selective reading of higher education's professional development literature, and interviews with four academicians currently involved in directing professional development activities: Professor Kay Herr[1] and Dr. Preston Davis[2], both of Colorado State University; Dr. Mary Ann Shea[3] of the University of Colorado-Boulder; and Dr. Paul Lansing of the Nothern Arizona University[4].

Small colleges should focus on instructional development (ID) as the beginning of a professional development program. Historically, small schools value classroom instruction more than research, publications, and grantmanship.

Bergquist and Phillips (1977, p.6) write that:

> ... instructional development is the most logical entry point for most emerging faculty development programs and that, while personal and organizational development are necessary elements of a comprehensive program, they are nevertheless usually secondary.

Large universities, which are the very ones that explicitly reward research and publications, have initiated professional development programs before small colleges. And they have enjoyed the organizational benefits first. While much of the professional development programs of multi-universities should not be modeled by small schools, a professional and organizational developmental commitment is worth emulation.

Small state colleges must realize that their survival is not totally tied to the fiscal capriciousness of their state legislators. Survival and its more admirable companion, growth, are linked to the qualities of an organization's functional health. In a word, the future of any organization, including small colleges, depends on its organizational health.

Organizational health for small colleges refers to specific qualties of classroom instructions and to the general well-being of individual faculty.

> Faculty earning power has declined, what mobility did exist has vanished, and even the existence of many institutions has been, and is, threatened. Unless college and university administrators and faculty can come to address the incredibly complex personal, organizational, and career issues... the bleak academic culture ... may someday come ...
> (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981, pp. 165-166)

While instructional development (ID) is a justifiable beginning, ID is not sufficiently comprehensive. Therefore, it is important to understand how ID compliments other PD components.

Life in Academe and Organizational Development

Much is known today about organizations. This literature and data resides in the emerging field of organizational development (OD). Higher education has been negligent in studying itself as an organization. Nonetheless, extensive application of OD strategies are commonplace in business, industry, and even public schools.

Throughout OD literature, there is a general feeling that organizational life and its functions can be manipulated. The results of these manipulations are increased profits, increased production, job satisfaction, and enhanced performance. There is evidence that OD applied to higher education facilitates both institutional and individual faculty growth (Nelson & Siegel, 1980).

Organizational development (OD) evolved from the human relations school of organizational theory. Typically, behavioral science procedures are applied systematically to improve long-range organizational functioning (Conoley, 1981).

Diverse OD programs operate from common assumptions (see Conoley, 1981, p. 139): First, if permitted, individuals naturally grow and develop through their organizations. Therefore, OD may promote both organizational and individual growth simultaneously. Second, organizational climates commonly foster combatant human relationships.

French and Bell (1978) summarized twelve types of interventions common to OD for the last twenty years. They are:

1. Diagnostic activities
2. Team building
3. Intergroup activities
4. Survey feedback activities
5. Education and training
6. Process consultation
7. Technostructural activities
8. Third-party peacemaking activities
9. Coaching and counseling
10. Life and career planning
11. Planning and goal-setting activities

Jerry Gaff (1975) comprehensively surveyed faculty development activities on American campuses. Common practices and attitudes across programs clustered into seventeen categories. Those categories include the following:

1. Faculty members are the most important educational resource of a college or university.
2. Teaching is the promary, but not the sole, professional activity of college faculty.
3. Research and teaching are not necessarily antithetical.
4. Academic tradition neglects teaching, it is assumed to occur.
5. There is a general feeling that instruction in higher education can be improved.
6. Successful instructional improvement programs must insure comprehensive support from administrators, teaching faculty, students, etc.

7. Both teaching faculty and administrators profit from development programs.

8. Teaching is a complex mixture of knowledge, motivation, values, and attitudes.

9. Effective teaching invariable helps students obtain their learning goals.

10. "There is not a single model of effective teaching or learning." (see Bergquist & Phillips, 1977, p. 5)

11. Students are diverse.

12. Faculty are diverse.

13. One's professional and personal life are interdependent.

14. Intrinsic motivation stimulates faculty growth and development more effective than extrinsic motivation.

15. Faculty involvement in development activity must be voluntary.

16. Most campuses, no matter how small, have faculty and staff with skills that could contribute to development programs.

17. A college's social climate directly affects faculty performance and student learning.

PD programs prosper or stagnate amidst surrounding college attitudes. When the blend is mutually facilitative, the college and its faculty develop. That is, both function better, Sometimes, however, neither the small college nor its faculty are prepared to grow.

Organizational Health

To improve the organizational health of a small college may mean to change faculty attitudes and behavior. Change, for some faculty, is threatening, and, therefore, it is difficult to implement.

Paul Dressel (1978, p. 348) writes that "Until and unless such instructors can tolerate frank discussion and criticism, they are unlikely to improve."

Working-life in healthy organizations is fairly well understood. Gallessich (1982, p. 322-323) reduces the extensive literature describing healthy organizations to twelve attributes.

1. Healthy institutions are thoroughly and explicitly committed to its organizational goals.
2. Problem solving is open and productive.
3. Decisions are data based and are made by those who are affected and by those who implement them.
4. Communication is open.
5. Healthy organizations consistently reward individuals who support stated organizational goals.
6. All subsystems of healthy organizations collaboratively support the institutional goals.
7. Individuals are respected resources; personal growth is promoted; flexibility and creativity are encouraged.
8. Conflict is open and constructively managed.
9. A healthy organization continually monitors its own performance.
10. Staff members adapt to changing conditions.
11. Resources are used optimally.
12. Administrators realistically assess their organization's assets and liabilities.

Conoley and Conoley (1982, pp. 124-125) generated a corresponding list for healthy organizations. They emphasized subsystem integration, the permeability of organizational boundaries, role clarity, goal agreement, problem solving capability, resource utilization, morale, and the ability to balance change and stability. Scapegoating typifies organizational distress. However viewed, healthy academic organizations are pleasant places to work. Yet few small or large colleges in America meet these standards. So often, many faculty operate in declining and threatened institutions, and this adversely affects their academic performance.

> Where did we go wrong?. . . for many a dedicated young teacher the route is the same: starting on a broad highway of intensity and conscience, he soon finds diverging forks with no clear sign of direction. And yet there are pressures all too willing to bend and divert: cynical colleagues, disappointed in their own lost ways; administrators concerned with avoiding the friction of criticism by keeping all bearing surfaces smooth . . . a community and society which would like him as a private in the ranks . . . the new faculty member is soon lost in a thicket of procedures and academic

ambition...(Berquist & Phillips, 1981,
pp. 335-336.

America's Small Colleges

These are not comforting times in higher education. American education has weathered philosophical and economic attacks for years, and, unfortunately, defensive educators are less flexible and productive. Academicians know more about where they have been and far less about where they are going. Some ills of America's largest multi-universities are shared to some extent by America's smallest and most rural colleges. We confront common challenges.

The traditional college marketplace has changed dramatically. Demographics have changed. New attitudes on careers and training exist. Much higher costs persist. In a report prepared last summer, the Citizens Commission for the Study of Higher Educatin foresaw a 30% overall drop in Nebraska's college enrollment by 1990 (Mahoney, 1985). Thirty percent is not an incremental adjustment. This is a radical shift, and survival will require a major academic realignment.

Until a college can reidentify its market, prognosis for survival is dim. Furthermore, an adaptive organizational strategy will not likely emerge until a college can comprehend more than traditional end-product measures of success like total enrollment, numbers of graduates, and budgets. Behind the traditional barometers of success are more vital casual processes (e.g., recruitment, retention, instructional effectiveness). Fortunately, the emphasis of PD literature is on process, not product.

Professionals and organizations have choices. One choice is resigned passivity. Do nothing but hope for the best. Passive professionals permit events to shove them about aimlessly. Many academicians feel helpless, angry, and victimized. A healthier response is productive and constructive creative problem solving. These people do something about the future.

Popular and professional literature abounds with illustrations and both active and passive problem solvers. And it does not take much literary imagination to determine where each choice leads.

In "Advice", Isaac Bashevis Singer's (1985) opening story from his newest collection, The Image and Other Stories, Morris Pintchover, a very old writer, observes that "It is quite possible that hell is made up of yearning. The wicked don't roast on beds of nails, they sit on comfortable chairs and are tortured with yearning" (see Leavitt, 1985). Singer (1985) repeats this theme some pages later through the narrator of the title story who states that, "My mother once said that the wicked in Gehenna lie on their beds of nails and wait for mail."

Erich Fromm (1968) clearly reminds us in The Revolution of Hope tht passive people are hostile, competitive, frightened, narrow, uncreative, and passive comsumers. Passive people are, in short, unhealthy and unhappy. Fromm applied his social analyses to both individuals and organiztions.

American higher education seems precariously suspended between stable tradition and an uncertain future. The final word is forever forthcoming. Endless anticipation is reflected adversely in the attitudes and behaviors of public school teachers and academic educators alike.

One temptation is to wait until the current educational firestorm subsides, until better research is assembled, or may be waiting a very long time. Better research has been needed ever since E.L. Thorndike's experimental connectionism at Columbia 60 years ago. Attacks on all levels of American education are not new. Waiting for a perfect opportunity only delays the inevitable.

An active PD approach promises healthier and more productive individuals and institutions. Typically, OD promotes learnable skills, attitudes, management practices, etc. Through OD training, faculty may learn to engineer the campus climate themselves; and their institutions will realize a more productive future.

> And perhaps higher education is simply immune to the systematic promotion of personal and organizational growth. Divided and isolated into departments, dividions, and disciplines, the individuals and groups that make up our academic organizations may simply lack the interdependence needed for human relations and structures.
>
> And yet the effort must be made once more, for if American higher education is going to survive the inevitable traumas of the 1980's with a sense of humaneness and dignity, it simply must give greater attention to the human and organizational dimensions of the enterprise. (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981, p. 165)

Models of Professional Development

It is fortunate for small colleges, just initiating a professional development strategy, that PD programs have operated successfully for years in higher education. There is much that can be modeled. However, common threads tying together diverse higher education programs are few. In fact, programs reflect a poorly defined assortment of special institutional and regional interests.

Even ten years ago, Jerry Gaff's (1975) survey of American colleges and universities uncovered more than 160 instructional improvement centers and programs. Gaff's list included both large and small colleges and universities.

Thirteen schools participated in the May, 1985, Fourth Annual Conference of the Great Plains Regional Faculty/ Instructional Development Conference (1985) held in Lincoln, NE. Large and small colleges from Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, Colorado, Oklahoma, Texas, and Ohio sent representatives. This conference is held annually in mid-America, and the level of conference participation continues to increase.

The Harvard-Danforth Center for Teaching and Learning, operating since 1975, focuses on classroom teaching using C. Roland Christensen's case method approach (see Christensen, 1985; also see Gullette, 1985).

The Office of Instructional Service at Colorado State University at Fort Collins has operated for eight years. Consequently, its services and budget are firmly entrenched in the University. Currently, their Instructional Development Services focuses on nine activities (Office of Instructional Services, 1981):

1. seminars on college teaching,
2. professional development institute (a series of workshops over two days held each January),
3. a Let's Talk Teaching Forum,
4. special seminars,
5. mini-grants for instructional improvement,
6. literature and media-based teaching materials,
7. consultation,
8. microteaching,
9. and a Student Reaction Profile System (i.e., paper and pencil student evaluation instrument).

At the Professional Development Institute held last January, 1985 (see Office of Instructional Services, 1985), workshop topics were offered over a broad range of topics. They included: "Dealing with aging parents," "The teacher as actor," "Microteaching workshop for self-evaluation of teaching," and "Oh, if I only knew: The adviser's reservoir of knowledge." Over the years, Colorado State has assembled an extensive infra-structure of personnel, media services, video taping facilities, etc., for any faculty member who seeks assistance voluntarily. According to Kay Herr, the current faculty-director of the Office of Instructional Services, about 25% of their 1600 faculty members use these services each year.

Just 50 miles to the south at the University of Colorado-Boulder, a faculty teaching-skills program is in its second year (see Shea, undated). Undergraduate students at the university perennially complained about the ineffective teaching in large lecture sections. In January, 1984, Kaye Howe, the Vice Chancellor for Academic Services, requested a study of the effectiveness of insturction in large lower division classes on the Boulder campus. Three outcomes resulted: (1) a synthesis of effective instructional development programs and research literature on effective teaching; (2) the identification and then interviewing of seven master teachers from lower division courses; and (3) the development of consultation/video taping services for faculty.

Higher education supports many different responses to program development, and it is difficult to discern a pattern. Also, comprehensive program evaluation data is scarce. Instructional performance data is available on individual faculty, but the overall impact of ID programs on the university is, to my knowledge, not available. Program effects are difficult to statistically analyze. At best, given reliable and valid data, one would likely employ a modified A-B-A quasi-experimental design or a time series analyses, both notorious for their interpretative entanglements (see Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Some trends are appearing, however. Bergquist and Phillips (1977) felt even eight years ago that faculty development paradigms were emerging. In fact, they found three models in higher education (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975; Bergquist & Phillips, 1977; Gaff, 1975). These models do not differ in components but rather in scope of application. All three, for example, address faculty attitudes and beliefs (e.g., knowledge, skills, values, sensitivities), processes (e.g., relating to and evaluating students), and organizational structures (e.g., campus groups, team-building, conflict management).

According to Bergquist and Phillips (1977), faculty development involves five endeavors: (1) professional development which may include (2) instructional development; (3) personal development; (4) organizational development (e.g., restricted in this case to the function and structure of the university; and (5) community development. Bergquist and Phillips (1977, p. 10) envisioned faculty development as a large Venn diagram of over-lapping activities.

Higher education now has a professional development association which meets annually and produces publications. The Professional and Organizational Network in Higher Education (i.e., The POD Network) was founded in 1975. This national group, as well as regional associations alike the Great Plains Regional Faculty/Instructional Development Conference, are increasingly effective clearing houses for personnel, literature, and forums.

The trend is clearly toward more articulate models, more data, targeted publications (e.g., The Journal of Staff, Program, and Organizational Development), and a more cohesive professional identity.

Small College Options

Small colleges should initiate professional development efforts that are consistent with their history, expectations, character, and resources. Small colleges traditionally value personal, classroom instruction. Therefore, instructional development would be the most appropriate professional program to start for campus improvement.

Instructional development promises at least four obvious benefits for small colleges. First, faculty value instruction and caring, personal classroom performance is legendary in America's small colleges. Second, discussions about instruction may be a convenient vehicle for introducing other areas of professional development like life adjustment, professional skills, and career pathing. Third, after a generation of student evaluations, it is reasonable to expect that students appreciate instructional effectiveness. Appreciation may translate economically into higher student retention rates. Fourth, faculty are potent models. Many small colleges are traditionally involved in teacher preparation. Pre-service teachers will benefit by witnessing competent instruction in the college classroom.

Selecting instructional development, instead of personal development or organizational development, narrows options. Yet, what colleges do specifically for instructional improvement may still be vast and expensive. Small colleges should begin with a traditionally acceptable core of behavioral goals and build with a systematic approach to the problem of instructional improvement.

Fortunately, considerable literature exists on the components of effective college instruction. Therefore, a small college should target its efforts toward these attributes.

Shea and Kroc (see Teaching Excellence Study, 1984) consulted the literature on teaching, interviewed personnel at various teaching centers, surveyed students in classes taught by outstanding University of Colorado-Boulder faculty, and interviewed seven outstanding faculty on their campus. Shea and Kroc found that good teaching included five components:

1. dynamism and enthusiasm, including communication,
2. content organization and clarity,
3. quality of interaction and rapport with students,
4. knowledge of content,
5. and fair examinations and grading practices.

Some portion of these elements are trainable. Very much in the spirit of behavioristic PD, effective teaching is not mysterious. Much can be done even by small and poorly funded colleges to enhance classroom instruction.

From the University of Colorado effort, Shea (undated) assembled a descriptive list of 100 target attitudes and activities to improve classroom instruction. Categories include content organization and clarity, rapport, communication skills, promoting discussion, exams and grading, and management.

Goldsmid, Gruber, and Wilson (1977) analyzed the attributes of 60 exceptional teachers as identified through a campus-wide nominating process at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill. The background characteristics of award-winners and placers (N = 60) were compared to a randomly selected group of 60 faculty from the campus. Summarizing briefly, Goldsmid, *et al*., found that

1. "Good teachers are no more likely to be found in one academic domain than another." (p. 429)

2. "...teachers perceived as superior tend to be those in mid-career." (p. 433)

3. Those nominated for teaching awards are not necessarily the most lenient graders.

4. There is no clear relationship between teaching load and rating. "...faculty perceived as better teachers so perform *despite* more preparation and more students." (p. 434)

5. The relationship between research activity and teaching skill is complex.

6. "Award winners (and runners-up) are concentrated in departments with less stress on gradute instruction." (p. 435)

7. "The background traits explaining most variance in nominee rank are those bearing face-to-face interaction between students and teachers." (p. 436)

The University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill is a large institute with an explicit commitment to research and graduate instruction. Yet, teaching excellence at the University of North Carolina or at Colorado State University consists of professional behaviors common to any faculty, even at America's smallest colleges.

Recommendations for Small Colleges

Small colleges should be actively involved in instructional improvement. However, the effort should be comprehensively planned and systematically administered and evaluated. Economy and expenditiousness suggest the following.

I. Make the effort focused. Limit early training to a few target instructional behaviors. The Shea and Kroc list (see Teaching Excellence Study, 1984) suggests many essential teaching behaviors with which to begin a development effort. Targeted goals should be behaviorally described, expressed simply, consistent with institutional traditions, and measurable.

Make the instructional development program practical. Bergquist and Phillips (1975) highlighted usefullness as a "selling" feature.

> Effective faculty development programs should contain elements which have immediate application to the primary function of the faculty member, instruction in the classroom. (p. 19)

II. Measuring performance change is difficult but essential. Unfortunately, evaluation in academe has developed sinister reputation. Too often, evaluation is punishment.

Licata (1984, p. 110) underscored the standard academic uses for evaluation:

> ...both administrators (59.1 percent) and faculty (49.6 percent) reported that the primary stated purpose, as well as their own preferred purpose for pre-tenure evaluation, was to provide information for personnel decisions... the primary stated purpose for post-tenure evaluation was faculty development and improvement.

Pre-tenure punishment is the least appealing rationale for evaluation. Far better justifications are education and self-development, information about one's competency, not obtainable elsewhere, and professionalization. Personal experience leads to Licata's (1984, p. 111) conclusion that

> "Evaluation should be more supportive and less threatening...to faculty development."

Academic environments are known for their reflective and analytical _modus operandi_ as well as their negativism. Changing the spirit of evaluation, given academic history, will not be easy.

III. Through constructive evaluation, small college professional development programs should insist on (1) voluntary participation; (2) the explicit separation of instructional development participation and tenure/promotion/salary deliberations; and (3) teaching faculty, not administrative programmatic leadership. All these are too-subtle cues tell the faculty that instructional development is important and that it will result in growth, not punishment or dismissal.

Instructional development will not prosper long in the academic climate if, as Johnson (1984, p. 91) describes,

> ...administrators tend to use the data to rank and rate individual instructors, and fail to provide the resources (both financial and personnel) to conduct the development side of the coin.

Punitive definitions of evaluation, especially when faculty are asked to grow and risk, is one crippling tradition that academe should disown.

IV. Build a supportive atmosphere through "instructional" teams.

Bardon (1982) worked for two years internally as a faculty development facilitator at the University of North Carolina in Greensboro. Bardon's (1982, pp. 182-185) observation sounds too familiar:

> The general impression I gained...was that of a highly diversified faculty, some excellent and committed teachers, some nationally recognized experts, and some inadequate educators no longer, if ever, functioning well as teachers or scholars. Many faculty members were isolated from one another and did not understand the work of their colleagues.
>
> ...colleges and universities, like public schools, are often lonely places in which to

> work...faculty members tend to go their own ways, doing what has to be done or what pleases them, profiting little from the talents and interests of colleagues...The atmosphere needed for mutual trust and cooperative effort often is not present.

Bardon's judgmental description fits academe universally. However, the most disturbing word in this paragraph is isolated. That, unfortunately, is the academic tradition. Academicians lock themselves in individual cells of habit, schedule, introspection, and shyness. Solitude does not encourage team work.

One workable example of a team-based professional development model is Paul Lansing's (undated) professional growth model (PGM). Teams composed of administrators and teachers define growth goals for each team member. The commitment is collaborative. If an individual fails to reach the prescribed goals, it is understood in Lansing's PGM that the team has failed and not just the individual. PGM has been successfully employed in suburban schools near Phoenix and San Diego. A quasi-experimental assessment is currently planned. According to Lansing, PGM captures the energy so often wasted in annual evaluations.

> Frequently after evaluation forms and conferences are completed, superiors and subordinates return to "normal" until evaluation time is here again. Acknowledgement of excellence is minimal and rewards for excellence limited. (See Lansing, undated, p. 1)

Professional development teams must be promoted for they will not emerge spontaneously from a college faculty. As Bardon (1982, p. 198) observed, "Educators do not easily turn to a colleague for consultation."

Bardon (1982) created and operated the Office of Educational Development at UNC-Greensboro, but finances and judgement closed the shop before the third year. Based on two years experience, Bardon offered the following guidelines:

1. Do not give the consultant/developer administrative authority such as in the selection of participants.

2. Be sure that procedural details on faculty development programs are well described.

3. Bardon worked with a small group of faculty each year. "Do not expect harmony just because some guidelines are posed. It takes

3. time and practice--and, most of all, willingness over a period of time to keep working at them." (Bardon, 1982, p. 191)

4. "The best way to coordinate a faculty group is to practice what you preach. Maybe it is the best way to do anything." (Bardon, 1982, p. 193)

V. Modeling is effective, and it enjoys an extended history of experimental support in human psychology.

Since the landmark modeling studies of Bandura and Walters (1963), psychologists and educators have been empirically convinced of the potency of modeling as an instructional strategy. Simply put, humans model what they see, hear, read, or imagine and may receive, through identification with the models vicarious reinforcement.

Professors are the primary professionalizing models of college students, and academe is the organizational milieu to support this process. Subtle but effective shaping of student behaviors occurs continuously. What we so often recall from our college years are professorial personalities --their jokes, their warmth, their professional dedication. Students often recall these experiences much better than course content.

Not only do students need models, but also faculty can profit from modeling. Faculty development programs like the one at the University of Colorado at Boulder provide faculty models of instructional competence. Through departmental nominations, Shea and Kroc (1984) identified seven master teachers. During the 1985-86 academic year, these faculty will present seminars on their teaching techniques and philosophies.

Small college campuses, especially ones located in rural communities, may have great difficulty finding enough professional models. However, there are many available resources beyond the community - printed literature, audio tapes, and videotaped presentations (e.g., from the satellite dish).

However, live models, in my opinion, cannot be replaced. It is beneficial to routinely expose small college faculty to live models of professional competence. A group of chemists, for example, could visit several well-known researchers or laboratories. Ideally, they could enter into the life of the laboratory. This has the potential for stimulating and revitalizing their professional enthusiasm. Excitement would likely transfer immediately to campus behavior and classroom instruction.

VI. College teachers must be provided comprehensive and systematic information about their classroom behaviors. In higher education, two common strategies are student evaluations and videotaping. Student evaluations yield the most quantifiable information. In an area so dominated by trend and impulse, substantive data is refreshing.

Many recent reviews have demonstrated the validity and general advisibility of student ratings as one measure of instructional effectiveness (Aleamoni, 1980; Centra, 1979; Cohen, 1981; Milman, 1981). The most extensive review to date is Levinson-Roe and Menges (1981) analyses of 71 instructional improvement interventions. According to Levinson-Rose and Menges, feedback from student ratings "can positively affect subsequent teaching, particularly if ratings are accompanied by consultation" (p. 419).

Student evaluations are valuable because they analytically inform the instructor of classroom performance, and they predict student learning. Cohen (1981) meta-analyzed 41 student evaluation studies. Cohen found that overall instructor rating and student achievement correlated .43; overall course rating and student achievement correlated .47.

Putting the evidence together, Cohen (1981, p. 305) concluded that

> Students do a pretty good job of distinguishing among teachers on the basis of how much they have learned..the present study lends support to the use of ratings as one component in the evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

Centra (1977) correlated student ratings and examination performance in 72 sections of seven courses. Results indicated that global ratings of teaching and the value of the course to students were highly related to mean exam performance.

Student evaluation data from reliable instruments provide valuable information for instructional development programs. There are several reservations, however. First, too much of the research data is based on only introductory courses. Data from advanced courses or laboratory sections may be quite different. Second, because of the quasi-experimental nature of student evaluation research studies, interpretation is equivocal. Third, the value of student evaluations to faculty development depends in part on what is done with the information.

Stevens and Aleamoni (1985) found that consultation and instructional support enhance the beneficial effects of student evaluations. Stevens and Aleamoni (1981) analyzed a ten-year follow-up on instructors who participated in 1971-1972 in a quasi-experimental assessment of instructional consultation and feedback. Results indicated that instructors who originally received feedback with consultation maintained higher student ratings and utilized instructional resources more often than college professors who received feedback only. Stevens and Aleamoni (1985, p. 303) concluded that "When the purpose of evaluation is instructional improvement, it is unlikely that the provision of feedback alone will suffice. Rather, feedback must be integrated with a system of instructor training and available instructional support services."

Conclusion

All colleges, including the smallest, should be actively involved in professional development. Instructional development may be an appropriate place to begin for many schools. Six recommendations are suggested:

I. Be explicit and focused about instructional development program goals.

II. Use evaluation constructively, not punitively; the goal of all professional development is growth, not fear.

III. Explicitly reward instruction. Faculty need to understand that classroom instruction is their most important professional contribution at a small college and that their institution will support their classroom endeavors.

IV. One way to support instructional improvement is with teams. Faculty should not view themselves as isolated.

V. Provide students, faculty, and administrators with models of personal and professional competence.

VI. Systematically, comprehensively, and regularly assess instruction. Throughout the process provide support and consultation.

Instructional quality is vitally important to the welfare of small colleges, but instructional improvement is not an accident. Instead, it requires planning, support, opportunity, reward, and monitoring.

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TEACHER STRESS; THE ENEMY WITHIN

By

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Education is in crisis. One manifestation is an exodus from the profession of the best, brightest, and most experienced teachers among us (Schlechty and Vance, 1981: 101-12), especially teachers of the emotionally disturbed (Lawrenson and McKinnon, 1982: 41-9). Seligmann and Huck (1978) documented an attrition rate among gifted administrators of thirty percent. Peng (1983: 101-12) and Robinson and Leith (1983: 13-21) warn that this situation is not expected to improve because the best and brightest students enter other occupations. Gifted women, once a foundation of education, are also avoiding the profession. Kessler (1983:52) underscored this point observing that during the decade of the seventies, the number of women earning degrees in business increased seven hundred percent; those graduating with law degrees rose from eight hundred in 1970 to 10,761 in 1980 and engineering degrees earned by women increased fifteen times.

Although some experienced teachers and administrators leave the profession to pursue more lucrative occupations, a common sentiment expressed is that they loved education, and although lower pay was a problem, they left the field with regret. Ultimately, continued exposure to problems within the field caused physical and mental "wear and tear" which brought discouragement, anger, and ultimate dissatisfaction with their work. Others state simply that their leaving the profession was due to one factor, excessive stress or burnout.

What is burnout? Kryiacou and Sutcliff (1978) state that no commonly-accepted definition of the term exists among social scientists. This problem is compounded because the terms "job tension" and "strain and job demands" are often used interchangeably. Illustrating this confusion, Time Magazine (June 6, 1983), in an issue devoted to the topic, noted that "...stress, in addition to being itself, and the result of itself, is the cause of itself." In addition, the topic is popular in many periodicals and many have reduced the condition to the status of fad. This is a dangerous error.

The above views are erroneous. Stress-related terms have been clearly defined. Hans Seyle (1974:15) described eustress as "...a state of positive nondeliterating stress; distress, excessive pressures which become more debilitating; hyperstress, too much stress and hypostress, too little stress." Seyle points out that there are optimum levels of stress and often humans seek our stressful situations for recreation as evidenced by competitive sports. Distress, excessive pressure which causes adverse effects upon individuals, is a serious problem. These pressures may come from any source and are cumulative. A teacher with difficult students, a lax administration, and marital problems is guaranteed problems that are observable, predictable, and easily defined.

Manifestations of Excessive Stress

Seyle (1956) pointed out that humans under large numbers of negative pressures are susceptable to what he called "diseases of adaptation." According to Cherniss (1980:71) these maladies include hypertension, alcohol and drug use, ulcers, asthma, heart and respiratory problems, job absenteeism, and marital problems. David (1975:42) gave anxiety-caused overeating as the main reason obese individuals gain weight. He added strokes to the list and noted the high frequency of men dying before age 40 because of stress-related problems. These illnesses, it must be noted, are only a few of a vast number.

Humans do not accept negative pressures passively. Their responses to stress are predictable, observable, and unusually unsuccessful. Morrow (1981:84) found the 3 best-selling drugs in the U.S. are Tagamet, an ulcer medication; Inderal, a hypertension drug; and Valium, a tranquilizer. One may ask, "Why not leave the stressful situation?" Air traffic controllers found that unemployment can be far more stressful than negative job situations.

Stress In The Workplace

In the workplace, highly-stressed individuals are easily observed. Forney, Wallace-Schutzman, and Wiggins (1982) characterized highly-stressed individuals as unenthusiastic lacking motivation, and behaving differently. Potter (1980:10) observed loss of will and motivation to perform tasks. (Watkins (1983:305) found that there is a depletion of physical and mental resources, and he observed that expectations often were aimed too high and that stressed individuals seemed to have their energy sapped by dealings with others. Long (1973:380) found that highly-stressed individuals developed high hostility levels and were willing to express the hostilities. Veniga and Spradley (1981:111) reported that managers and business executives usually resorted to alcohol after working hours while foremen and skilled workers were more likely to use drugs on and off the job.

How do these problems affect those in the "people or helping profession?" Cherniss (1980:72) found that stress manifestations are highly contagious. When stressed workers interact with others under the same pressures, the entire group can become a surly collection of burnouts taking their hostilities home with them at the end of the work day. This has predictable effects upon marital and family life along with other social settings. Maslach (1981:1), Bardo (1979), Freudenberger (1975), Garte and Rosemblum (1978), and Moracco (1979) have observed that teachers, therapists, and others in the "people" professions who are under pressure often become bitter and attempt to cope through a process called "distancing." This response, defined as attempting to put psychological distance between oneself and others, is manifested by increasingly impersonal dealings with others which, in time, can turn into active hostility.

Women And Stress

Although it is a dubious distinction, in the area of stress-related problems, women often have more than full equality. Billings and Moos (1982:215-32), Hayes and Feinleib (1980:133-141), and Hasan, Juhani and Pirkko (1979:72-91) along with many others have indicated that in many cases stress has greater effects upon women than men. An especially ominious trend pointed out by Hayes and Feinleib (1980:133-135) is that working women are reporting significantly more symptoms of emotinal distress than men and they are also reporting higher instances of heart disease. Cooper and Davidson (1982:44-53) states this situation can be expected to continue because society (including women) expects working women to be "super human" by successfully handling a career and home life with little assistance. The previous paragraphs have discussed the effects of excessive stress upon workers in general. Where do teachers fit into this picture? Unfortunately, the answers are sobering.

Teachers and Stress

Applebaum (1981), Cherniss (1980), and Cooper and Marshall (1980) state that stress may be particularly prevalent in the human-service professions. Cook and Leffingwell (1982), applying this view to teachers, stated, "...it appears the stress of teaching has become excessive, the exodus of teachers is alarming, and problems of excessive stress have serious implications." Sparks (1979:37) observed that excessive stress has reached epidemic levels in some districts; and Scrivens (1979:34) and Seville (1980:76) point out that teachers with ten or more years of experience are most prone to feel the effects of excessive stress. Other authorities discussing this topic use terms like, "...crisis proportions" (Farber and Miller, 1982), "...the worst health problem teachers have" (Sylwester, 1977:14), and "...a difficult and pressing problem"

(Norton, 1971:51). In other words, as Cook and Leffingwell (1982) observe, "...many people who persevere through the stresses of academic teacher preparation succumb to the stressors that permeate the teaching environment itself" and Block (1978: 1193) observed that combat soldiers, in some cases, have it better than some teachers.

> "...military personnel, however, know that upon completion of a combat mission or upon surviving for a certain period of time in a war zone, they will be rotated to a nonstressful place for rest and recuperation..Treatment for teachers who present symptoms of trauma or continued stress, however, is usually disallowed until they collapse from complete physiological or psychological depletion. There are certain administrators who simply dismiss them as 'unsuccessful' teachers.'"

Comparing teaching too closely with other occupations can be a serious error. Chapman and Lowther (1982:242) note that substantial teacher autonomy is a myth as teachers operate within a rather complex set of expectations about what and how much material they must cover, they are required to simultaneously deal with large numbers of students from different backgrounds and academic levels and what often is viewed as teacher autonomy is more often isolation. Also, monotony is a problem and job challenge is limited.

One of the first manifestations of extreme stress is impersonal dealings with others. Is this a problem in teaching? Some authorities answer with an emphatic affirmative. Rosenshine and Furst (1971) found high correlations between teacher enthusiasm and superior student achievement. Cruickshank (1980:212) observed that teachers presenting material with animation, appropriate gestures and eye contact have students who achieve better on tests than those who did not gesture, read in a monotone, and generally behaved in an unenthusiastic manner. Students, whose observations of teachers can be painfully accurate, confirmed these findings. In what could be considered a message to educational critics, Hart (1934) found that students, when asked to rate desirable qualities in teachers, placed knowledge of the subject far (Hart said 16th) down the list of desirable qualities.

What Is To Be Done?

This discussion began by observing that stress is a serious problem. The paper has presented evidence that teachers can be viewed as having more serious stress-related problems than their peers in other occupations and that excessive stress has the potential to negate the efforts of the most dedicated and trained teachers. Additionally, it cannot be expected that many highly-stressed teachers will simply leave the profession. Personal economic considerations can mandate otherwise and often what results is a collection of bitter, angry, and vocal educators whose hostilities are contagious and observable.

Unfortunately, there are few easy solutions. First, of course, the problem must be accepted as having a top priority. Reasoning for this view is found in the statements of the authorities who maintain that sympathetic and caring teachers, although they may not have the superb command of subject matter demanded by some critics, are valued members of the profession. This researcher believes the following recommendations are valid:

--The commonly-accepted view that burnout is a fad should be emphatically rejected as should the view that the malady is irreversible.

--Problems of teacher burnout should be given the highest priority. The teacher-exodus problem exists now and dalliance on the topic by schools of education and districts will only assure that it will continue to the detriment of the profession.

--Models in Indiana and Oregon, as well as other states exist now which can give direction to others wishing to combat the teacher-stress problem immediately.

--Teachers should be included in attempts to combat stress-related problems as they often can be quite specific as to factors in their setting that cause dissatisfaction.

--Research seeking the effects of stress upon cultural and racial minorities in education is lacking. This dearth of information could be viewed as hampering attempts to deal with teacher dissatisfaction.

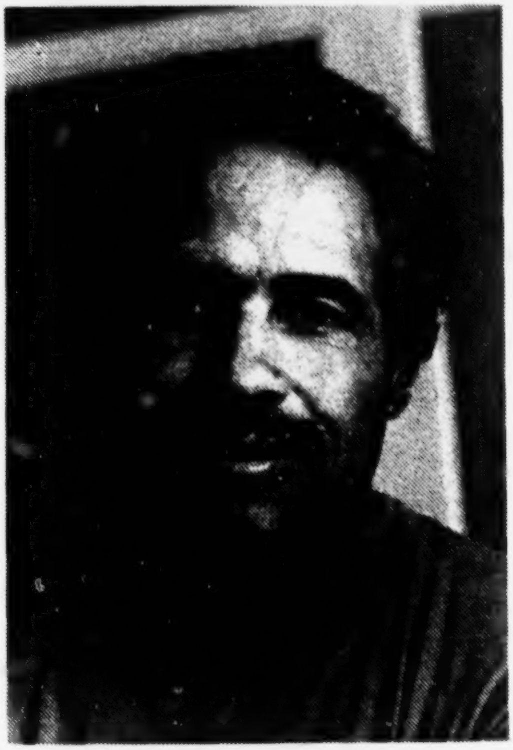
--Administrators represent a fruitful area for research. Data which could slow the administrative exodus discussed earlier would be invaluable.

--Are problems of excessive stress part of colleges of education? This researcher suspects that they are and that teacher stress may have its origins on the undergraduate level.

--Incidence of depression among young people, teen suicides, and drug use indicate that problems of frustration are not limited to adults. Studies researching causes of student frustration would be useful to administrators, counselors, and teachers.

--Investigations into the above-mentioned areas should be shared by individual districts and schools of education. As this malady covers the areas of geography, psychology, sociology, and others, a multidisciplinary approach is mandated. University-level researchers would appear to be the logical choices to conduct this research.

Although these recommendations are preliminary, this researcher believes they should be taken seriously and implemented without delay. One point must be continuously made clear: Education cannot afford to continue to lose teachers at the current rate. Something must be done now.



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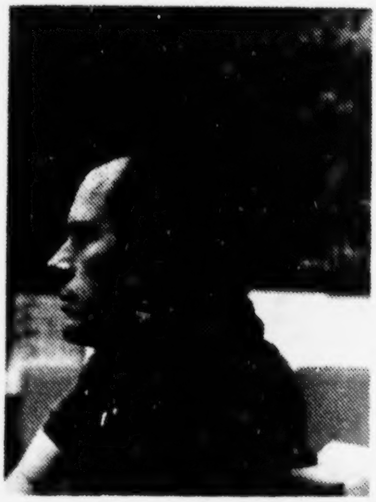

A LEARNING RESOURCE CENTER FOR TEACHER PREPARATION

By

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Abstract

Teacher preparation programs benefit from having settings for students to observe and apply teaching theory in actual practice. A University Learning Resource Center provides such a setting. Professors, students, and public school teachers are challenged to deliver effective introduction and conduct meaningful learning activities within this facility. A model for creating an interdisciplinary center with reading, special education, psychology, and early childhood components is presented. A successful and novel teacher preparation program for the future will be one that educates successful teachers in only four years. It will require drastic change in how learning about effective teaching behavior is delivered. Most of the internal and external criticism written in the last two years contains claims that there is so much to learn and apply and so little time to experience it that a fifth year internship is desirable. Too bad we won't have any students to teach with such a requirement! The cost of obtaining teaching certification will be GROSSLY out of proportion with starting salaries instead of being only DRASTICALLY out of proportion as it is now. Egbert (1985) touts two preservice programs as being national models for the future of teacher preparation. He also admits that both programs lost students and that the University of Kansas fifth year program actually had a reduction of sixty percent of its graduates.

This paper claims teacher preparation can be done effectively in four years of study. One setting that is needed is a Learning Resource Center. Components and uses for such a facilty are discussed.

Rationale

With a teacher shortage looming on the horizon (AACTE, 1983) it seems obvious that calls for a five-year program are not the answer. Perhaps a more effective way of training teachers will include revising field experiences and practicums within the four year training period to make them intense, effective learning experiences. An interdisciplinary

Learning Resource Center (LRC) has the potential for being a cost effective (limits duplication of services) and innovative (interdisciplinary which mixes undergraduates with graduates) application of learning experience for preservice and inservice teachers. Upon reflection it seems obvious that contact with the actual audience is a vital ingredient in teacher training. A study by Egbert and Kluender found that several courses already require field experience: human development - 34%, reading - 41%, social studies - 38%, and foundations - 45%. Therefore, the total percent of a preservice teacher's coursework that is involved with children is already beyond 10%.

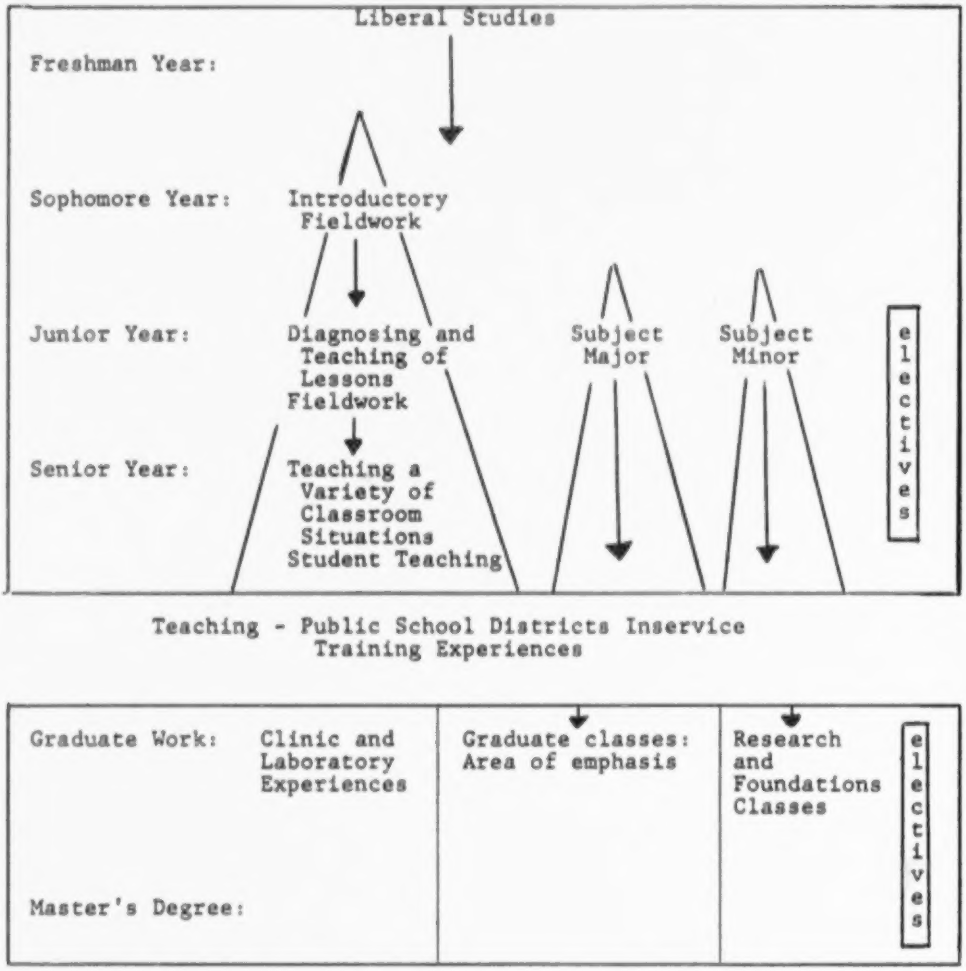
The *Nation At Risk* (1983) recommend that persons preparing to teach be required to "demonstrate an aptitude for teaching." Since most teacher education programs have always done this, it is assumed that the Commission would like current programs to improve upon *how* they require competence to be demonstrated and documented. Cruickshank (1985, p. 35) states that "laboratory, clinic and practicum experiences have been included in the teacher preparation curriculum at least since the early 19th Century." Cruickshank then calls for the continuation of laboratory, clinic, and practicum experiences as one of four basic ingredients in teacher preparation. The purpose of such experiences is to "provide worklike settings in which students study their teaching and think about learning dynamics. These experiences should include: observation, participation, apprenticeships, practicum, and clinical experience."

In an article suggesting key components of teacher preparation for educating teachers for the 21st Century (Schuttenberg, 1983), the author suggests a three dimensional model of teacher education that includes being able to: "diagnose students' learning levels and styles, using a variety of instructional strategies and resources effectively and working with individuals and small groups effectively." Improvement in teacher preparation does not have to add these components because they're already there. Educators have to innovate and experiment with factors *within* these application experiences.

A university LRC creates a setting for students to use their learning and for professors to observe and to provide individualized, specific evaluative information about the process of teaching. Figure 1 presents an overview of how an LRC could influence several levels of teacher preparation.

FIGURE ONE

Laboratory, Clinic and Practicum Experience
Within Teacher Preparation Programs


Liberal Studies
Freshman Year:
Sophomore Year:
Introductory Fieldwork
Junior Year:
Diagnosing and Teaching of Lessons Fieldwork
Subject Major
Subject Minor
electives
Senior Year:
Teaching a Variety of Classroom Situations Student Teaching
Teaching - Public School Districts Inservice Training Experiences
Graduate Work:
Clinic and Laboratory Experiences
Graduate classes: Area of emphasis
Research and Foundations Classes
electives
Master's Degree:

Courses at the undergraduate and graduate levels have a setting for observation, instructional interaction, critiquing and introspection, revision, and more trial teaching. Undergraudate and graduate students also interact as models, sources of information and mentors for each other.

Koehler (1985) cites two studies as evidence that the ecology of the school setting has the greatest effect on teacher-to-be behavior. It is more powerful than the university teaching that preceeds it. The LRC allows students to encounter and discuss learning environments as part of their early development. Education professors reduce the negative impact of sudden immersion in schools that occurs during student teaching but acknowledge and use reality as part of the development of teachers. University professors also provide an accurate evaluation procedure for students by using an LRC.

Greenburg (1983) presents evidence that the correlation between fieldwork and practicum evaluations and the correlation between pupil growth and principal ratings are the strongest factors in existing evaluation procedures. Once an LRC is in place it is up to students and professors to use it fully to increase the effectiveness of students. It holds more desirable recruitment and training potential than additional intern years tacked on to existing four-year programs.

In Models for the Preparation of America's Teachers, Cruickshank (1985) describes five issues related to his recommended component of professional studies - laboratory, clinic, and practicum experiences. They are sequence, relationship to one another, making them laboratory-like, image of practicum among educators, and failure to use research on teaching and school effectiveness. An effective LRC has to be used as a laboratory, clinic, and practicum by a variety of disciplines, classes, and students.

Components

The components of an interdisciplinary LRC might be: a day care center for the children of university students and/or the general public, a curriculum and resource library, diagnostic evaluation rooms and tutorial stations, educational media stations, large and small group instructional space, and observation capabilities (one-way glass) and a variety of materials. Figure 2 presents an overview of experiences and benefits the LRC will provide.

FIGURE TWO

Interdisciplinary Components

Early Childhood	Who Benefits?
Day Care Center	University Student
Observations	General Public
Case Studies	Multi Cultural Children
Practicums	Bilingual Children
Director Internships	Field Sites
Graduate Assistantships	
Research	

Educational Psychology	Who Benefits?
Diagnosis & Evaluation	Public Schools
Practicums	Juvenile Courts
Case Studies	Community
Staffings	Social Agencies
Graduate Assistantships	Parents

LEARNING RESOURCE CENTER

Reading	Who Benefits?
Tutorial labs	Multi Cultural Students
Diagnosis	Bilingual Students
Remediation	Public School Students
Practicum	Field Sites
Internships	Other Colleges/ Universities Athletics Counseling
Graduate Assistantships	Adults with deficiencies
Research	Parents

Special Education	Who Benefits?
Tutorial lab	Multicultural Students
Diagnosis	Bilingual Students
Remediation	Public School Students
Practicum	Field Sites
Internships	Other Colleges/ Universities Athletics Counseling
Graduate Assistantships	Adults with learning problems
Research	
Writing IEPS	

Each of the four educational disciplines has areas of overlap as well as uniqueness. Undergraduates and graduates would interact but have different experiences and requirements. A sequence of use of the LRC by one developing teacher might be to make use of the LRC tutoring services which are provided for freshman students. Sophomore students may observe its operation as part of an introductory education course. As a junior students can complete micro and/or reflective teaching units for classes and they may then conduct a complete case study during the senior year. Upon returning to the university as a graduate student, he/she may make observations, tutor undergraduates, conduct case studies or intervention strategies, meet with parents and discuss student progress, meet with teachers and suggest techniques to use with particular students and direct small and large group demonstration instructional lessons.

Use of the Learning Resource Center as described in Figure 2 sequences application experiences developmentally. Competencies being taught to teachers and evaluated by professors build upon one another from the sophomore year through student teaching. These experiences are laboratory-like and lend themselves to a feedback loop such as: instruction, lesson preparation and delivery, evaluation, feedback, editing/revising, more instructional practice. Within these activities professors will use, and teachers experience, models for effective instruction.

Creating and/or revising laboratory, clinic and practicum experiences to increase effectiveness and to answer criticisms of teacher preparation have to be accomplished. Cruickshank (1983, p. 36) offers the following suggestions to begin the process:

1. Obtain consensus regarding the outcomes of field experiences (apprenticeships, observation, participation, practicum).
2. Determine to what extent the various field experiences are valid for each outcome.
3. Gain consensus on the roles and relationships of persons involved in field experiences.
4. Determine how best to prepare each subgroup for its role and do so.
5. Gain consensus on how the variety of field experiences should be structured and when they should be presented.
6. Investigate how pure field experiences can be transformed into more professionally meaningful laboratory and clinical experiences and do so.

7. Reach agreement on how preservice teachers should be evaluated during field experiences.

8. Support the identification and verification of knowledge that can be used to enhance clinical experience.

9. Obtain consensus regarding the outcomes of on-campus laboratory experiences.

10. Determine to what extent different kinds of on-campus laboratory experiences - simulations, microteaching, reflective teaching - are valid for each outcome.

11. Determine the place and sequence for on-campus laboratory experiences.

12. Support development and use of true forms of on-campus laboratory experiences.

13. Obtain consensus on how preservice teachers should be evaluated during on-campus laboratory experiences.

Within such suggestions professors should insert innovative delivery of instruction ideas. The LRC is a resource for classes, and professors should accept the challenge of providing creative models of how to teach. The entire ecology presented by the university training program will model effective, applicable, student-centered learning experiences. Then the student applies what he learned from the model in LRC.

The idea of a clinic or laboratory within a university is not a new idea, and examples of clinic use by teachers-to-be can be identified in each of the disciplines. Bates (1984) reported that in United States universities with graduate programs in reading, as listed with the International Reading Association, 87% of the responding schools provide clinic experience for their students. What is new is the idea that an LRC be interdisciplinary, have a field site capability, and that undergraduates would make extensive use of the facility for practicum experiences. Some questions to ask while planning for the LRC component of teacher education might be:

-How can it be a training center as well as a service center?

-How can use of it dovetail with class requirements?

-How should it relate to the public schools?

-What models of instruction should it promote?

-What should clients using the center learn and feel?

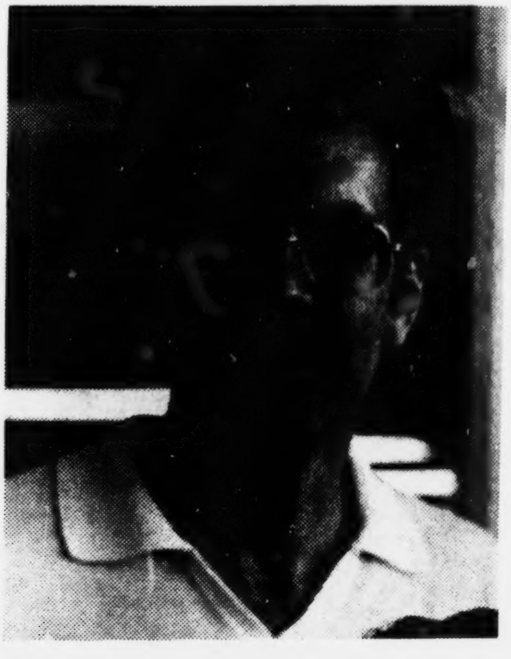
-What research can it generate about students needing help and the instructional techniques that work?

-How should efforts in it be evaluated?

-What are the differences between field site assignments and campus-based assignment?

Conclusions

The purpose of this paper was to conceptualize delivery of laboratory, clinical, and practicum experiences for the preparation of teachers. Application of learning activities should be accomplished within the four-year teacher preparation program by effective use of a Learning Resource Center. School districts will still have to do their part and invest in new teachers also. They polish the undergraduate product by supportive activities during first year immersion in the profession. The activities that are carried out in the LRC have to be built on our successful teacher education efforts of the past and go beyond those efforts. Requiring contact with students in an LRC and using that contact for teaching will improve the preparation of teachers.



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APPENDIX I

THE TOTAL PROGRAM OF THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT

Background

For thirty-eight years (1947-1985) the North Central Accrediting Association has sponsored the activities of its Committee on Institutions for Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Project. Throughout the thirty-eight year history of the sponsorship, many different activities were implemented. For the past eight years the structure and direction have been provided through the Teacher Education Project which also enjoys the sponsorship of the North Central Association. During the most recent years, 1979/80 continuously through 1985/86, the major activity of the project, the summer workshop, has also been sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The most outstanding and well-known contribution of the former Committee was the support and sponsorship of a Teacher Education Workshop. As a result of internal changes in the makeup of the North Central Association itself, it became necessary to alter the support structure of the "project". The objectives and operation, however, have remained essentially unchanged. In order to gain the full impact and benefits of the workshop to institutions of higher education accredited by the North Central Association, it would be necessary for one to study at considerable length each of the products of the total project, (1) the workshop, (2) the Presidents' and Deans' Annual Meeting, and (3) other similar activities sponsored throughout the long history of the Association. Some institutions have chosen to participate in the teacher education activities for the full thirty-eight year period.

Appendix I of this publication contains the following basic elements:

1. a review statement describing the past activities;
2. a description of the Teacher Education Project as it presently operates.

Rationale

The activities of the Teacher Education Project have served a significant service for the North Central Accrediting Association. In the past, project activities included research elements, but the major direction of the Teacher Education Project has been to provide desired services to institutions throughout the North Central Region who have chosen to avail themselves of opportunities for self improvement. Repeatedly, reinforcement and encouragement have been provided by faculty and administration representatives from the institutions served by the project. Each year an activity is identified which focuses upon an area of common concern. A nucleus of institutions (all accredited by the North Central Association) have felt a direct need for participation in this activity throughout its entire thirty-eight year history.

Purposes and Objectives

The overall goal of the Teacher Education Project is to strengthen the educational programs of North Central Association and AACTE institutions of higher education through cooperative study and program development. The Teacher Education Project Committee achieves this goal by supporting the following objectives.

Objectives of the NCA Teacher Education Project:

1. to provide initiative and leadership which will permit interested institutions to work jointly and cooperatively in studying programs in teacher education as well as general problems of higher education;

2. to invite broad institutional participation from throughout the NCA Region and from interested AACTE schools;

3. to provide direction to the Teacher Education Project and to maintain a constant evaluation of the project;

4. to establish and maintain appropriate working relationships with regard to project activities such as:

    a. summer "Teacher Education Workshop";
    b. "Coordinator Visits" to participating institutions;
    c. publication and distribution of the results of project activities;
    d. development of program activities for the annual NCA Meeting and for other national and regional meetings.

Procedures Identified

1. The project committee membership is maintained by filling vacancies from participating institutions. The Teacher Education Project Committee is comprised of from five to nine members. The normal term is five (5) years.
2. The Teacher Education Project Committee selects a chairperson and determines the total activities which will be included in the Teacher Education Project. The chairperson of the Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Director of the Project.
3. The Teacher Education Project Committee serves as the Board of Directors.
4. Each year the Teacher Education Project Committee evaluates the project activities and makes appropriate recommendations.

Personnel

There have been no full-time personnel associated with the project at any time in its entire thirty-eight year history. All activities of the Teacher Education Project Committee and the project have been voluntary. Many of the expenses of the summer workshop, including the personnel associated with this activity, have been largely assumed by the participating host institution. Project coordinators are chosen from the list of past workshoppers; they are not paid for their services except for expenses and a modest honorarium.

Target Group

The primary targets of the goals of the Teacher Education Project have been institutions of higher education. The direct services to the institutions which elect to participate are obvious. In addition to the direct target services, publications supported by the Committee are available to all institutions of higher education on an "at cost" basis.

The workshop goals serve both faculty and administrators from participating institutions. Of course, the entire teaching profession is also served by the annual focus upon a critical problem relating to teacher education. Through the continued use of coordinator visits (as well as the alternatives presented in the Project Description), all participating institutions gain additional benefits.

Product or Activities

A full explanation of the "Cooperative Teacher Education Project" follows in this appendix. While minor changes are constantly initiated by the Committee, the essential thrust have continued throughout the 1985-1986 project year. Notice of the specific "themes" will be communicated to NCA and AACTE institutions. Several structural changes are planned for the 1986-1987 project year.

General Purpose of the Teacher Education Project

The general purpose of the Teacher Education Project is the *improvement of teacher education.* Such improvement is heavily dependent upon the study of educational problems in each individual institution. The in-service growth of faculty members which is designed to qualify them for leadership assignments is another goal. It is through success in solving current problems and through the sharing of these successes that the improvement of educational programs in the participating colleges will be brought about.

Probably the greatest benefit of the project results from inter-institutional cooperation. Similar joint efforts have demonstrated that when colleges set out to help each other, they greatly help themselves. Cooperation leads to creative effort.

Sponsorship and Direction

Members of the Teacher Education Project Committee are selected from participating institutions. Present members of the committee are:

Clyde Campbell, President
West Liberty State College
West Liberty, West Virginia 1984-85 through 1989-90

Donald Deselms, Vice President
Chadron State College
Chadron, Nebraska 1982-83 through 1987-88

F. Clark Elkins
President's Coordinator
of University Relations
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona 1981-82 through 1986-87

Wayne Huddleston, Vice
President for Academic Affairs
The School of the Ozarks
Point Lookout, Missouri 1981-82 through 1986-87

Darlene Miller, Dean
School of Professional Studies
Anderson College
Anderson, Indiana 1985-86 through 1990-91

Janet Murphy, President
Missouri Western College
Saint Joseph, Missouri 1984-85 through 1989-90

Mossie Richmond
Vice President University Relations
Arkansas State University
Jonesboro, Arkansas 1981-82 through 1986-87

Donald W. Jones, Coordinator
Secondary Teaching Programs
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 1985-86 through 1990-91

The North Central Association Teacher Education Project Committee is responsible for finances of the project, for determining major policy, and for general supervision and direction of the project.

The Project Committee is assisted by a small number of Project Coordinators, who normally serve for a three-year term. Individuals presently serving in this capacity during the 1985-1986 project year are:

Donald Jones, Coordinator
Secondary Teaching Programs
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

John Strouse, Chairman
Department of Secondary, Higher
and Foundations of Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

In addition to Drs. Jones and Strouse, recent workshoppers are invited to provide special consultative skills when deemed appropriate. Project Coordinators conduct visits to colleges, and stimulate and facilitate inter-institutional collaboration. Both committee members and coordinators devote part time only to the work. There are no regularly paid personnel connected with the entire project.

Project Activities

Summer Workshop

The annual summer workshop is regarded as a valuable means of helping staff members from participating colleges and universities prepare for leadership in directing institutional development and improvement, in initiating such programs, and, in general, in facilitating cooperative thinking and sharing with reference to the improvement of teacher education. *Consequently, participating colleges are expected to send a representative to the workshop each summer.*

Each summer workshop is devoted to intensive consideration of the problems which concern the individual colleges. Workshops also provide a period for training the leadership personnel needed for continued study of problems by individual colleges during the year. Each year a report containing proceedings of the summer workshop is distributed to the participating colleges and it is available nationally for purchase at cost.

The published workshop report provides considerable insight into the processes and outcomes of the workshop, but at the same time, what is perhaps the most significant outcome of the activity is not recorded at all within the pages of this record. This outcome consists of the change that is effected within the workshoppers themselves as a result of the three weeks of intensive struggle with the particular problems of their own institutions. They consult with experts and examine the professional literature on these problems and they exchange information and experiences with the representatives from other institutions at the workshop concerning common problems. Realizing the fundamental importance of systematic study of institutional problems and broadening or putting to the test their appreciation of colleagues in disciplines other than their own are also emphasized. Many facets of institutional operation and the tasks and challenges of higher education as a whole rather than simply one's own institution become apparent. Indeed, one fundamental purpose in operating the workshop is to produce these personal gains.

Over a period of several years some colleges have accumulated a group of faculty and administrators, who, having had the workshop experience, constitute a powerful nucleus for providing leadership and direction not only in institutional research, but also in other phases of operation. Such a nucleus in the faculty can mean the difference between a dynamic academic atmosphere and a dead one, between active efforts to face real needs for change and a satisfaction with the status quo, between a closely knit staff that operates harmoniously and one that has noticeably divided itself between faculty devotion beyond the call of duty and the performance only of necessary tasks. For these reasons some colleges have sent two representatives to the workshop.

Coordinator Services

The project maintains a staff of Project Coordinators, who often assist the workshop staff. Thus, they may help to provide leadership for the workshop and become acquainted with the representatives and the problems which they are studying. One of the coordinators may serve as Co-Director of the Workshop for the three-week period.

As a basic part of the project, participating institutions may request that a project coordinator visit their campus during the school year. This is arranged on a "cost only" basis. The host institution is responsible only for transportation, housing, and food; the Teacher Education Project will provide an honorarium to the coordinator. The chief functions of the coordinator visits are first to stimulate institutional development, and second, to facilitate the testing of the soundness of plans by the experiences of other colleges. Also, in order to provide for the sharing of experiences among the participating colleges, each coordinator attempts, during this visit to the campus, not only to impart pertinent information which he/she already has about problems and practices in other colleges, but also to acquire additional knowledge which he/she may share with other institutions in subsequent visits. The visit by the coordinator or the use of one of the following alternatives is also a component of participation in the project.

Alternatives to Coordinator Visits

Instead of having a visit every year by one of the regular coordinators, each college participating in the Teacher Education Project may elect one of the following four alternatives. These alternatives are open for use during any academic year. The deadline date which will be established each year, is necessary in order that the use of the alternatives may be taken into account in planning for coordinator visits. Visits are normally planned to include two or three colleges in one trip so as to conserve the coordinator's time and the project funds.

1. The first alternative is that of the *Regional Work Conference*. Such an event may be planned by the participating colleges in one or two states, with or without attendance at the conference by institutions not in the project. (At least two participating colleges must cooperatively select this plan.) In general, the purpose of the conference would be to have a relatively small number of colleges work intensively over a period of perhaps two days on some rather clearly defined educational problem. Each institution eligible to use this alternative will be reimbursed for actual expenses in connection with the conference up to the amount of $200.00. A portion of this sum could also be used for printing, etc. Under this alternative the committee will send one of its regular coordinators to the work conference, and will defray the honorarium and travel expenses involved. The primary reason for sending the coordinator to the

conference is to have him/her meet with these campus leaders from participating institutions as a group and individually. The coordinator may also assume a nominal assignment in connection with the conference, but, if he/she is given a major role, proper compensation should be given by the colleges conducting the conference. In no event, however, should this responsibility interfere with the coordinator's primary purpose of giving adequate time to the chair of the work conference. Finally, the colleges undertaking the work conference will be expected to prepare a brief report summarizing the results of the conference for distribution to all institutions participating in the Teacher Education Project. The Project Committee will bear the cost of copying and distributing the report.

2. A second alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Inter-Visitation Plan.* A small number of participating colleges in the same region may join in an arrangement whereby each takes a turn serving as host to a delegation of visitors from each of the others. Careful plans must be made by the host college so that the visit will have maximum value for the staff members from other institutions, who may spend part of their time in making observations, but who also will engage in intimate discussions with one another and with their hosts.

Each of the participating colleges taking part in such an inter-visitation plan will be reimbursed for expenses actually incurred, up to the amount of $200.00. The Committee will also bear the cost of copying and distributing to the colleges participating in its project any report prepared on the results of the inter-visitations.

3. A third alternative to the coordinator's visit is the *Cooperative Research Study.* Two or more participating institutions may join in research on a common problem with, again, reimbursement made for expenses actually incurred up to the amount of $200.00 to each college involved. These colleges will be expected to prepare a brief report of their undertaking. When they have concluded the report the Project Committee will defray the cost of reproducing it and distributing it to all colleges participating in the Teacher Education Project.

Institutional Obligations

Each participating institution is obligated to send one representative to the summer workshop, but if it desires to do so, it may send two. Participation in the entire project will begin with representation in the workshop. A workshopper may be a teacher or an administrative officer, and he/she may be connected with any of the instructional departments. Also important are potential qualities of leadership, communication, and vital interest in teacher education and its relation to the total college program. It is important that the institutional representative to the workshop be chosen early so that he/she can make proper preparation for attending the workshop and so that the college can plan for the absence from the campus while in attendance.

Some participating colleges have established a Local North Central Association Project Committee which arranges for the coordinator's visit, provides for the distribution of materials, acts as a general discussion-forum group to keep the faculty informed and sympathetic about its teacher education undertaking, and keeps the project as a whole informed of the college's activities and progress through the coordinator.

Participation in the program for 1985-1986 required a contribution of $650.00 per year from each member college. This participation fee is used to finance expenses of the workshop, and *does include* registration expenses for one institutional representative to the *Teacher Education Workshop and housing costs for the workshopper.* This amount does not cover the food and transportation for those attending the summer workshop. It is expected that each college will establish local policies regarding such expenses. Staff costs for the workshops are assumed by the cooperating host university through registration in the workshop. The Project fee is payable on or before July 15, preceding the academic year to which it applies.

Publications

The publication of a report on significant developments of the workshop program is one basic goal of the project. Special emphasis is given to each of the various workshop activities together with specific illustrations of workshopper projects. These reports of the summer workshops are regular publications of the Teacher Education Project and are distributed to member institutions. Titles of the most recent publications are:

1970-71	Human Relations in Teacher Education
1971-72	Innovations in Human Relations in Teacher Education
1972-73	Performance-Based Teacher Education
1973-74	PBTE: Selective Retention
1974-75	Leadership in Teacher Education: The Dependent Variable for Change
1975-76	Continued Professional Development of Practicing Teachers: What Roles for Institutions of Higher Education?
1976-77	Evaluation in Teacher Education
1977-78	Accountability in Teacher Education
1978-79	Undergraduate Education: The Preparation of Teachers

1979-80	The Full Range of Professional Laboratory Experiences for Educational Personnel: Imperatives for the Future
	Teacher Education Centers to Provide New Roles for Higher Education
1980-81	Multi-Cultural/Multi-Ethnic Education (Ball State)
1981-82	Multi-Cultural/Multi-Ethnic Education (Northern Arizona)
1982-83	Leadership and Governance in Teacher Education
1983-84	Revitalizing Teacher Education in the Mid 80's
1984-85	The Human Dimension of Teacher Education for the 21st Century
1985-86	Designing Contemporary Teacher Education Curricula

A Guide to the Coordinator's Visit

Introduction

Beginning with the 1985-86 project year, the Coordinator Visits are offered to all participating institutions regardless of location on a "cost" basis. Institutions may use this service on an annual basis if desired. The visit continues for a day or two and is planned jointly by the coordinator and the host institution. Whether the visit turns out to be a red-letter day or just another event in the affairs of the college depends primarily upon the care and skill with which plans are made and carried out.

Functions of the Coordinator

1. *The Coordinator is NOT a "Jack-Of-All-Trades".* Throughout the process of making plans for the visit it is important to keep in mind the primary functions of the coordinator and of his/her visit. The coordinator comes from a busy life as a full-time college faculty or administrator. Activities as a coordinator are taken on in addition to regular duties. Therefore, the coordinator does not come to the local campus as an omniscient expert who is ready to provide the answers to any and all educational problems that may arise, and could not possibly be a specialist in all fields.

2. *Sharing and Cooperation as the Basis for the Coordinator's Work.* The function of the coordinator is that of stimulating and assisting the host institution to plan and to execute teacher education studies and program development, especially by sharing with them the experiences of other institutions and by providing for interchange through direct

contacts between two or more participating colleges. The fundamental basis of the entire project is that of sharing and cooperation; experience has shown that college faculties can be stimulated to increased interest and to more fruitful progress in the study of a great variety of problems by this means. The coordinator's visit is one of the important links in the chain used to foster the inspiration and assistance that can come from such such interchange and cooperative endeavor.

3. *Summary of the Coordinator's Function.* The coordinator comes as a collaborator and as an aid. Special strengths of each coordinator generally lie in a knowledge of the activities in other colleges participating in the project, and in tha ability to use techniques of group leadership in encouraging and assisting the host institution. Since the coordinators are outsiders with a background of visits to numerous colleges, they may be able to see the local stiuation, its needs and activities, in a fairly broad perspective and thus be able to point up some of its significant elements and inter-relationships. The coordinator's visit, therefore, should be planned with a view to reaping the maximum values through the functions which he/she is expected to perform.

"The coordinator is NOT an evaluator for accreditation!"

Dates for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Time of Year for the Visit.* The particular dates for the visit by the coordinator to the college campus should be worked out jointly between the coordinator and the individual designated by the president of the host institution. Many colleges have found that the coordinator can be most helpful early in the academic year by assisting in planning a program and getting it underway. This is very likely to be a sound choice, although some colleges prefer to have the visit come relatively late in the year so that they will have achieved certain progress or results which can be demonstrated to the coordinator and presented for his/her examination.

2. *Two or Three Colleges Usually Included in One Trip.* Whenever possible the coordinator attempts to arrange to visit two or three colleges on the same trip. This is done not only to conserve time and energy and to reduce the extent of absence from her/his full-time position, but also to assure the most economical use of the Teacher Education Project funds.

3. *Cooperation in Arranging and Abiding by the Dates for a Combination Trip.* It becomes important then that the several colleges which the coordinator desires to visit on a single trip cooperate by agreeing to a combination of dates which will make this possible. One way for the coordinator to facilitate this, after learning of the general time of year that visits are desired, is to present to the colleges several alternative dates

on which such a combined trip can be made. It is especially important after the college has agreed on a date for the visit *that it abide by this agreement.*

Preparing for the Coordinator Visit

1. *Organizing for the Visit.* Initial contacts are made with the president of the institution regarding coordinator visitation schedules. The coordinator ordinarily will, at the same time, contact the person who represented the college at the previous Teacher Education Workshop regarding the visit. The coordinator may visit with the workshopper about the forthcoming visit; therefore, some plans will already have been proposed by the two in consultation with each other.

If there is a local Teacher Education Workshop Committee (in some instances consisting of former workshoppers) it may take the responsibility for planning the visit. If such a group does not exist, the person making arrangements will need to seek counsel where he/she can find it and will always make sure that appropriate administrative officials are consulted and that final plans are supported by them.

2. *Providing Advanced Information to the Coordinator.* The coordinator would appreciate receiving copies of published materials that describe the purpose, structure, and program of each college to be visited. This should include the brochures, a faculty handbook, if one is available, etc. Recent special reports of study group and research projects would also be of interest.

If the college is engaged in any special activities growing out of the cooperative project, reports of these would be of particular interest to the coordinator. The coordinator should have a copy of the planned schedule of activities well before his/her arrival.

Preparing the Faculty for the Visits

The campus host responsible for making arrangements for the visit should make certain that appropriate faculty know about and understand the role of the coordinator. The detailed program prepared for this event should be publicized in advance. In this connection, special emphasis should be given to the function of the coordinator and what is or is not expected of him/her. This will not only avoid disillusionment on the part of faculty members who otherwise might erroneously expect the coordinator to "dish out all the answers" and pass judgement on local matters, but it will also pave the way for the host institution to profit in maximum measure from the visit.

Planning the Program for the Coordinator's Visit

1. *Planning in Terms of Local Needs.* If the college is to receive maximum benefit from the coordinator's visit, careful plans should be made for it. In general, these plans should rest not on what the coordinator wants, but on what the college would like to have the coordinator do in view of the function which he/she may be expected to serve. Suggestions from the coordinator, however, should be sought. Detailed information of the program and the schedule of meetings which are finally developed should be completed in advance of the visit.

2. *Length of the Visit.* The common practice is for the coordinator's visit to continue for a day or a day-and-a-half, although in special cases it may occupy two full days. The hours of arrival and departure of the coordinator should be ascertained in advance and plans should be made for utilizing all of the time while on the host campus to greatest advantage. This could include the evening of arrival if sufficient time is available.

3. *The Coordinator's Relationship to the Faculty, the Student Body, and the Study Committees.* The main purposes of the coordinator during the visit are to stinulate and to aid faculty and administrative committees which are engaged in institutional studies and program development. Except, however, for informing students or staff more fully of the purposes and values of the cooperative project, or discussing a problem which is of general and active concern for them, formal speeches are at best extra-curricular activities. The core of the plans made for the coordinator's visit should consist of meetings with committees that are studying institutional problems in general and teacher education problems specifically.

4. *Preparing for Committee Meetings with the Coordinator.* Careful plans should be made for each committee meeting. The coordinator should be quickly oriented and brought up to date on the most recent developments. A progress report prepared in advance, summarizing the work of the committee to date, defining problems and issues, outlining basic evidence, and listing questions still to be considered will be very helpful, along with an agenda for the meeting. Each committee member and the coordinator should be provided with a copy of such materials. The group should proceed as expeditiously as possible to a consideration of the topics and problems which have been prepared in advance for that purpose and listed in the agenda. *The coordinator will be a member of the group, participating in the discussion and answering questions presented, but in general, should not be expected to make a formal speech.*

5. *Additional Appropriate Activities:*

   a. Coordinator meetings with student groups;

   b. Coordinator meetings with administrative officers;

These should provide an opportunity for mutual exchange of information and suggestions, and especially to give the administrators an opportunity to tell the coordinator exactly what they think of the project and how it can be improved. These meetings should, therefore, be held in private.

c. Coordinator meetings with individual faculty members;

d. Helping the coordinator to help other colleges; That feature of the college which may have special significance or interest to other institutions should be explained and, when possible, demonstrated. The coordinator should be given opportunities to observe them so that full information can be shared on visits to other colleges. Similarly, if there are any materials of special value that the college has recently produced, the coordinator should be provided with copies of them so that the information may be shared with other institutions.

6. *Planning the Visit to Assure the Greatest Values.* The foregoing discussion was designed to suggest some of the ingredients which might go into a good program for the coordinator's visit. No college is expected to include all of these suggestions for any one such event; in fact, the attempt to do so would probably require several days rather than only one or two. The particular activities included in the program for the visit should be chosen in the light of the needs of the local situation and the strengths of the coordinator. These suggestions are intended as an aid in making the coordinator's services most fruitful to the college, not to dictate the program or to make the job easier. The coordinator would rather be worked hard during his stay and be of maximum help, than to have too little to do and not be of the greatest service.

Care, Feeding, and Housing of Coordinators

1. *Entertainment is Not Expected.* The chief reason for this final section is to make clear the fact that the college is not expected to entertain the coordinator during the visit. Basic hospitality will assure a productive visit.

2. *Use of Luncheon and Dinner Hours.* It may be remembered when making plans for meal times that the coordinator is on the campus primarily for educational purposes. Thus, the luncheon and dinner hours could appropriately be used for meetings in a convenient place with formal and/or informal groups or committees (if desired by the host institution).

3. *Lodging for the Coordinator.* Since the campus visits are strenuous experiences for coordinators and since they desire to do their best while on the campus, most coordinators prefer to stay at a local motel if one is available, or in a college guest room, rather than being invited to a private home.

PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS 1985-86

	Workshopper	President or Chancellor
ANDERSON COLLEGE Anderson, Indiana	Barbara Jones	Robert Nicholson
ARKANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY Jonesboro, Arkansas	Alta Burns	Eugene Smith
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY Muncie, Indiana	No workshopper	John Worthen
CHADRON STATE COLLEGE Chadron, Nebraska	Bill Roweton	Edwin Nelson
IOWA WESLEYAN COLLEGE Mt. Pleasant, Iowa	Vince Mahoney	Thomas Clayton (Acting President)
MISSOURI WESTERN COLLEGE Saint Joseph, Missouri	No workshopper	Janet Murphy
NORTH CAROLINA STATE UNV. AT GREENSBORO Greensboro, North Carolina	Shirley Haworth	William Moran
NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY Flagstaff, Arizona	Michael Tanner Darold Simms	Eugene Hughes
THE SCHOOL OF THE OZARKS Point Lookout, Missouri	Ray Gibson	Stephen Jennings
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS AT PINE BLUFF Pine Bluff, Arkansas	Trenton Cooper	Lloyd Hackley
WEST LIBERTY STATE COLLEGE West Liberty, West Virginia	No workshopper	Clyde Campbell

APPENDIX II

THE 38th ANNUAL WORKSHOP

Summer, 1985

Purposes of the Workshop

The summer workshop is one of the basic activities of the cooperative project and is designed to meet the goals and expectations of the institutions and their individual representatives. Purposes are as follows:

1. to provide member institutions specialized information on timely topics developed and disseminated by workshop participants;
2. to enhance the professional knowledge and acquaintances of participants;
3. to develop contributions to the state of the art in teacher education.

Sponsorship

The 1985 workshop was made possible with the help of Northern Arizona University, the North Central Association, and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Each participating institution contributed to this project through a general fee of which a part was assigned to provide support for the summer workshop. Although the workshop could not exist without member and participant support, the host institution does provide an important element of logistical support. Northern Arizona University provided a portion of the costs, and through the Center for Excellence in Education provided facilities, equipment and personnel. Various departments contributed speakers; the library contributed personnel services and complete use of facilities; and many other individuals and organizations assisted individual workshoppers.

TEACHER EDUCATION WORKSHOP
1985

PERSONNEL

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About The 1985 Workshoppers

ALTA BURNS, Assistant Professor in Physical Education/Recreation Department at Arkansas State University for twenty years; previously taught Annie Camp Junior High School; dance coordinator and sponsor of modern dance club annual spring dance recital; member American AHPERD, Arkansas AHPERD, Arkansas Health Ass'n., National Dance Ass'n., Phi Epsilon Kappa, Delta Kappa Gamma, Faculty Women's Club; Bachelors Degree from Arkansas State University and a Masters from George Peabody-Vanderbilt.

TRENTON COOPER, Supervisor of student teachers in the science and math fields and Associate Professor in Education for five years at University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff; previously taught at Knoxville College, Southern University Louisiana, Arkansas and Oklahoma public schools; primary field in math and science with emphasis in math and nuclear physics; EdD in Curriculum and Instruction; researched micro-computer classroom application and methods for improving test-taking skills; published: "A Case for Teacher Educators to Become Computer Literate"; involved in NEA-AEA, ACTE; Bachelors Degree from University of Arkansas Pine Bluff and a Masters Degree from Oklahoma State and the University of Minnesota; Doctorate from University of Tennessee.

RAY GIBSON, Supervisor of student teachers in the faculty of Professional Education for twelve years at The School of the Ozarks, Missouri; previously taught at Southwest Baptist Unv., Waynesville and Bradleyville, Missouri as public school coach and teacher, and served as public school superintendent; teaches foundations courses, audio-visual courses, administration; published in 1980 NCA Workshop Publication; member Missouri State Teachers Ass'n., Phi Delta Kappa, School Board Ass'n., NAIA Faculty Athletic Representative, 85-86 Nat'l President, Missouri Ass'n. Education Communication and Technology; Bachelors Degree from Southwest Missouri State; Masters Degree from University Arkansas and Doctorate from the University of Arkansas.

SHIRLEY HAWORTH, Coordinator of Teacher Education and Professor of Elementary Education at North Carolina Greensboro for ten years; previously taught in elementary school, elementary education curriculum, methods courses (undergrad), advanced courses (MED, CAS, EDD), elementary education supervision, training of cooperating teachers, teacher education; currently researching content and organization of pre-service teacher education programs, published "Coordination for Change" in *Education*, Winter, 1984; member ATE, SRATE, ATENC, ASCD and ASCDNC, AACTE and NCATE; directed NCATE and SDPI Self-Studies; Bachelors Degree from Guilford College, Masters and Doctorate Degrees from University North Carolina at Greensboro.

BARBARA JONES, at Anderson College, Indiana, for the past seven years, Chairman of Department of Education for two years, director of elementary student teachers, director of early childhood programs; previously taught in public schools in Ohio, Burris Laboratory School Ball State campus and Ball State University; researched attitudinal studies of participation students/ cooperating teachers; published book reviews - Exceptional Child, 1984; member NAEYC, Phi Delta Kappa, AACTE, ATE, IRA; grant writing - Lilly Foundation, Curriculum Review - Indiana State Department of Education; Bachelors Degree from West Liberty State College, West Virginia, Masters Degree from The Ohio State University, and a Doctorate from Ball State University, Indiana.

VINCE MAHONEY, Head of the Division of Education at Iowa Wesleyan College for seven years and supervisor of student teachers for fifteen years; previously supervisor science teachers at the School of Education Berkeley University in California, taught science in junior high and high schools in California, science and computer science methods, human relations for teachers, general methods; published five-year program evaluation for Iowa State Department of Education, 1984; member Nat'l. Ass'n. Research in Science Teaching, ISEA, Phi Delta Kappa, NSTA Life Member; professional effort - developing computer science programs for math methods course, written state program evaluation reports, helped organize new PDK Chapter in southeast Iowa; Bachelors Degree from the University of Nevada Reno, Masters Degree from Michigan State University, and a Doctorate from California Berkeley.

BILL ROWETON, Psychology curricula and gifted/talented education at Chadron State College, Nebraska for a year and a half; previously taught James Madison University in Virginia and Indiana State University; special interest in human learning and instructional theory, gifted/creative/talented education; researched convention presentations, book reviews, articles, several books in educational psychology; member Nat'l. Ass'n. for Gifted Children, AACTE; designed and administered surveys in gifted education; Bachelors Degree from The Ohio State University, Masters and Doctorate Degrees from University of Wisconsin, Madison.

DAROLD SIMMS, English teacher at Cope Junior High School and Point Loma College in Redlands, California for five years; teaches history, English, Spanish, French, social studies, ESL, LEP, CBEST Preparation; prepares teachers for state teacher examinations; research: dissertation on teacher stress; member NATE/NATH, National Language Teachers Ass'n.; Bachelors Degree from Loma Linda University, Masters from Loma Linda, and Doctorate from Northern Arizona University.

MICAHEL TANNER, on faculty of education in area of reading at Northern Arizona University for three years; previously taught at Western Oregon State College, reading teacher Longmont, Colorado, social studies teacher in Wisconsin; expertise in reading, h.s. methods, educational psychology; research: Action Research by Classroom Teachers, editor of NAU publication; publications: Classroom Research by Classroom Teachers and Teaching Reading with Video Games; member of International Reading Association, Phi Delta Kappa, State and Local Reading Councils; Bachelors Degree from the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh, Masters Degree from the University of Northern Colorado at Greeley, as well as a doctorate from Northern Colorado, Greeley.

Workshop Organization

General Sessions

Organization of the 1985 workshop encouraged all workshop participants to attend the full three weeks. As shown in the Workshop Calendar for the second week of the workshop which follows, there were several general sessions each week. Usually each workshop day opened with a brief assembly for the purpose of making announcements and reports of concern to the entire group. Informal group gatherings occurred at coffee breaks in the mid-morning and at meals. One of the general sessions during the final week was devoted to reports from the various working groups. These reports provided each working seminar a means of integrating and evaluating its work, gave each participant an account of the achievements and problems of other work groups, and provided a body of research and opinion in various aspects of teacher education to be added to the similar contributions of past workshops.

Workshop Theme Development

The topic of the workshop, "Designing Contemporary Teacher Education Curricula", prompted discussion and reflection as participants in the workshop made efforts to define the topic. We did not wish to rehash previous work yet we found ourselves back among earlier reports. But recent events certainly challenged the thinking and research limits of the workshoppers and staff.

SECOND WEEK (July 21-27)

	Sunday, 21	Monday, 22	Tuesday, 23	Wednesday, 24	Thursday, 25	Friday, 26
MORNING	Free Time	* OFFICIAL PICTURE DAY! 9:00 General Discussion (feedback on Cruickshank/Commission Report 10:30 NCA Teacher Education Project Committee Panel Presentation	9:00 Initial Committee/Group Sessions 10:00 Dr. Rulon 10:30 Dr. Whorton Director, Division for Preparation of Professional Personnel 11:30 Group/ Individual Study Plans	9:00 Essential Components of Curriculum Development (Dr. Jones) General Discussion Work Time	9:00 Meet My School 6. R. Gibson 7. B. Jones 10:00 Review Selection Book Work Time	9:00 Progress Reports on Individual Research Efforts 11:00 Workshop Review and Summary (workshop staff)
AFTERNOON	Free Time	1:00 - 2:30 Committee Meeting 2:30 Group Planning Session	3:00 Meet My School 4. V. Mahoney 5. A. Burns 4:00 Feedback Session on Initial Group Planning	Work on Proposals	2:00 General Discussion Progress Work Time	1:00 - 3:00 Group Work by Project Committees
EVENINGS	6:00 - 8:00 Social at the home of Clark Elkins			7:30 Lowell Observatory		7:00 Black Bart's Dinner Theater

Workshop Theme Groups

There were three theme subgroups identified by the workshop participants as dimensions of the overall workshop theme. Each workshopper worked within one of these groups studying and reporting on the topic of the theme subgroup. Listed below are the subgroups and the names of those who worked on them.

GROUP I

Forces Affecting Parameters of Teacher Education

Barbara Jones
Shirley Haworth

GROUP II

A Window of Analysis for Examining One Major Curriculum Recommendation

Trenton Cooper
Vince Mahoney
Michael Tanner

GROUP III

The Professional Studies Component in Teacher Education: More than Courses and Generating Academic Credit

Alta Burns
Bill Roweton
Ray Gibson
Darold Simms

Procedural Committees

Three committees were organized to handle routine work necessary for the operation of an effective workshop.

1. The Resource Committee was in charge of setting up procedures for the utilization of and the accounting for the books and materials used in the workshop. This committee also explored and reported to the total group procedures for using the university libraries. The scheduling of special reports by fellow workshoppers was handled by the Resource Committee, as well as making arrangements for audio-visual equipment.

Vince Mahoney
Ray Gibson
Trenton Cooper

2. *The Editorial Committee* was asked to accept major responsibility for providing guidance to the total workshop in the planning and preparation of written reports. Editorial services were arranged, and a common access to secretarial assistance was maintained.

Barbara Jones
Bill Roweton
Vince Mahoney
Darold Simms

3. *The Social Committee* was active throughout the entire three-week period. A wide variety of activities was arranged, some of which were designed for all, while others met the needs of small groups. Since the membership of the group remained constant every week, the Social Committee became a committee of the whole. However, leadership and direction were provided by the following.

Alta Burns
Shirley Haworth
Michael Tanner
Ray Gibson
Trenton Cooper

Some of the social activities included the opening of the workshop with a social occasion at the Coultar House, located on a beautifully wooded setting in the mountains. Participants with nametags greeted each other; some were old friends, some new. This occasion made the opening of the workshop a memorable experience for all.

An all day trip to the Navajo and Hopi Reservations was completed. This was, as expected, a highlight of the social activities. The trip proved to be highly informative as a result of the efforts of Dr. Haskell Cannon. Dr. Cannon, a former NCA workshopper and Co-Director, provided rich information and insights.

Several of the workshoppers visited the Grand Canyon. Another venture took some to the Hopi communities for the traditional Home Dances. Attractions such as Sedona, Jerome, Montezuma's Well, Sunset Crator, Lowell Observatory, the Snow Bowl, Walnut Canyon, Canyon DeChelly also contributed to the learning and the enjoyment of the workshoppers.

Dr. Clark Elkins and Norma hosted the workshoppers, their families, the staff, and the Project Committee at an open house at their home. The timing of this activity was excellent and the hospitality was outstanding. Clark, a former workshopper, a former Project Coordinator, and a present Committee member continues to give outstanding leadership and service to the NCA Teacher Education Project.

A brave group of workshoppers enjoyed an evening at Black Bart's Theater. Audience participation supported the hidden talents of several workshoppers.

A final dinner party marked the close of the three weeks of work. Workshoppers were joined by their families and by the workshop staff and several program presenters. The highlight of the evening was jazz piano entertainment presented by Dr. Trenton Cooper, a workshopper from Pine Bluff, Arkansas. The program for the evening centered around a "roast" of the workshop director, Donald Jones.